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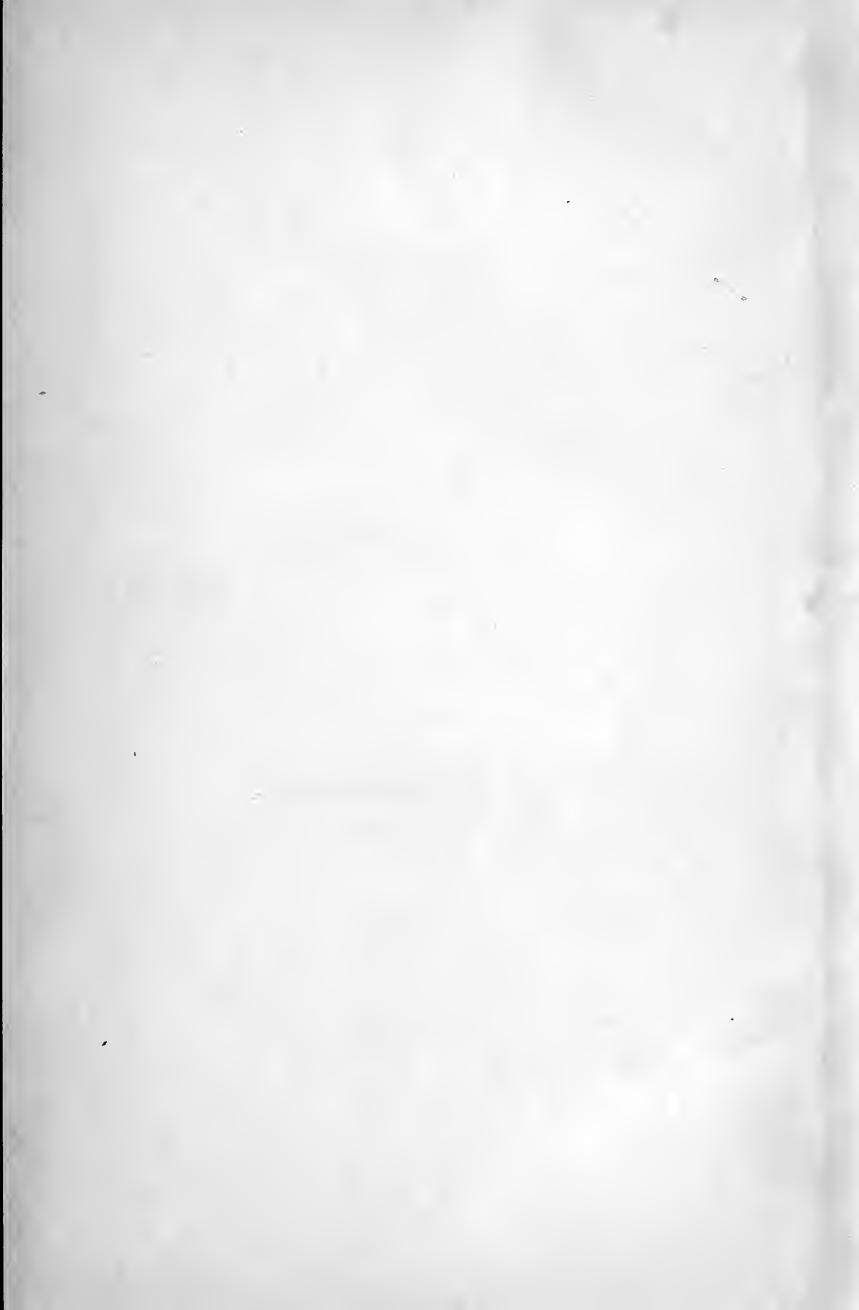
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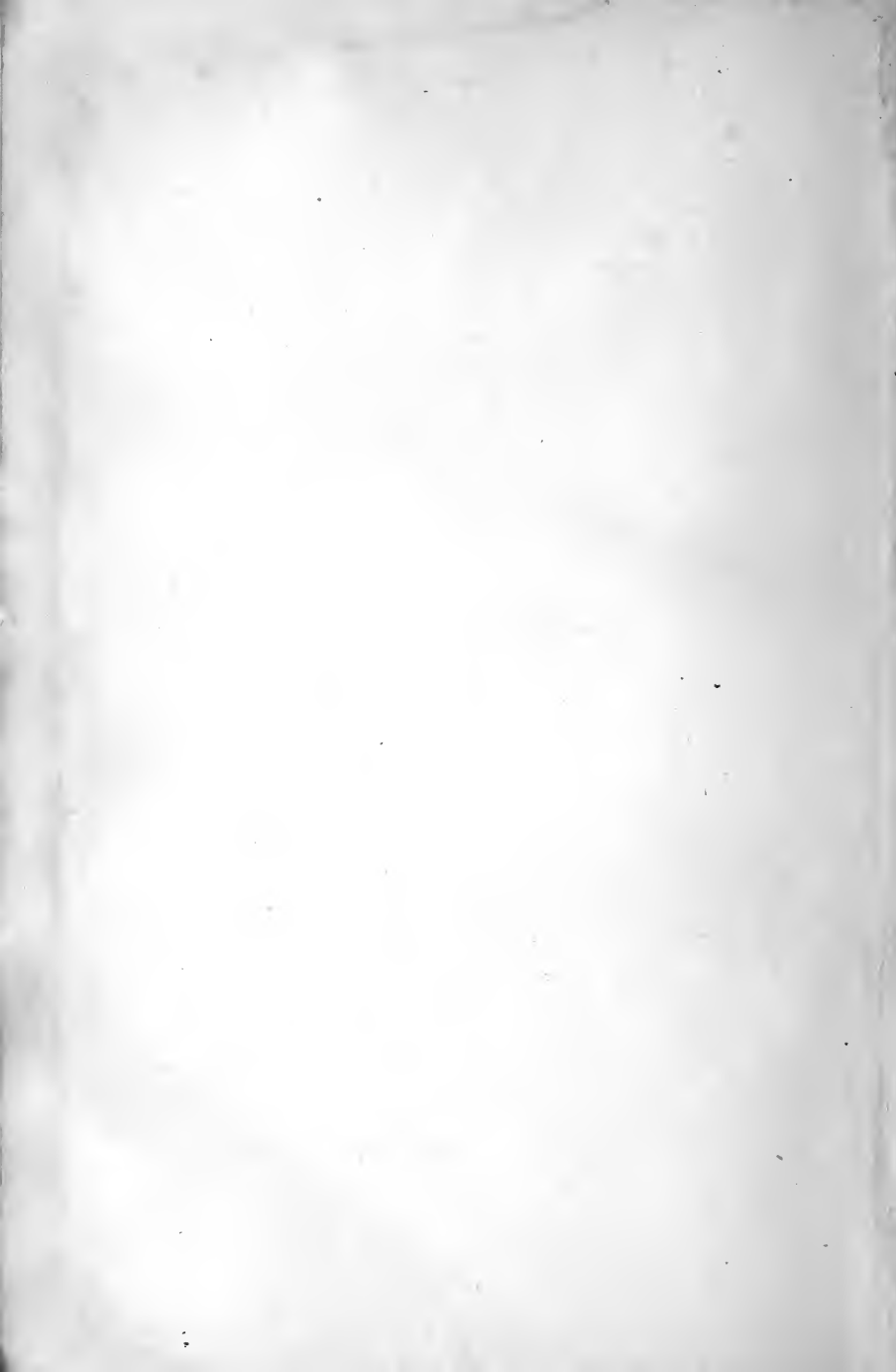
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THE
ESSENTIALS
OF
LATIN GRAMMAR.

Francis
Adelbert BY
F. A. BLACKBURN.

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Nobis prima sit virtus perspicuitas, propria verba, rectus ordo; ... nihil
neque desit neque superfluat. — *Quint. Inst. viii. 2, 22.*



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PREFACE.

THIS book is the outgrowth of several years' experience in teaching Latin to beginners. Portions of it were drawn up some years ago for the use of my own classes; the success that has followed the use of them has led to the completion of the lacking portions and the publication of the whole.

The objects kept in view in compiling the book were two: without omitting essentials, to make a book small enough to be mastered by a beginner, and to arrange the principles of grammar contained in it as systematically as possible, thus making them easy to learn and easy to keep. The first object I have tried to secure by studied conciseness of statement and by the omission of all that Latin has in common with English, *e.g.*, definitions of the parts of speech, kinds of sentences, subject, object, etc.; rules for the use of adverbs, conjunctions, and the like. The object of these omissions, however, was not brevity alone, but rather simplicity. I have assumed that the book will be put into the hands of pupils who have already studied English Grammar, and I believe that loss of time is only a part of the harm of requiring a pupil to relearn a grammatical definition or principle couched in new words. The book will not be found suitable, therefore, for pupils who have not mastered the elements of grammar, unless the teacher shall supplement it with the needed definitions.

The second point aimed at is partly a matter of grammatical system, partly of typography. Whether my classification of the facts and principles of the Latin tongue is any help to the pupil in learning them and keeping them, is a question for the teacher who may use the

book. The arrangement of these facts and principles on the page, however, will commend itself, I hope, to all. The coarser print contains those portions of the grammar of the language, which, in my judgment, should be absolutely mastered; the smallest amount to which memorizing can be limited. The notes contain illustrations, explanations, and those limitations of grammatical principles which are the outgrowth of usage, and which should be gradually learned by daily reference in the course of reading a Latin author. Much that is in the notes should be memorized; how much, is a question left to the judgment of the teacher, and the answer will depend on circumstances: the amount of time at the disposal of the class, the age and character of the pupils, the requirements of the college they have in view, etc. The duplicate numbering serves to connect the notes to the statements they illustrate or explain, and is simple enough, I hope, to save the vexation and loss of time incurred in trying to find a reference in a book systematically sub-divided and classified. The numbering answers the same purpose as paging: convenience of reference. A bracketed reference refers to a note; such a reference, given orally, may be called simply "*note*," e.g. [142] may be read "note 142."

It is not claimed, of course, that so small a book contains a complete exposition of the principles of the Latin tongue, or a complete history of the growth of the forms and usage of Latin speech, and the book is not intended for those who pursue the study of the language so far. Such should provide themselves with larger and fuller treatises. It is intended for that class of pupils who study Latin in school and college for the training it gives in clearness of thought and exactness of speech, but whose tastes or plans of life and work do not lead them to the higher and more attractive study of the life and growth of the language. I have, therefore, omitted discussions of the origin and growth of forms and idioms, or of the development of syntactical usages, as well as all illustrations drawn from comparative grammar. I have tried to include, however, all the grammatical information needed for a high school or for the early years of a college;

to the point, in fact, where the better colleges now give the pupil the option of continuing classical studies, or substituting other branches more to his taste. I have tried, moreover, to so arrange the facts and usages of Latin speech, that the pupil who carries his studies beyond the limit of the book, shall not be obliged to unlearn, but only to supplement, what he has already mastered.

It is proper to add that I put forth no claim to original research, my object being to make a school-book. If the plan and arrangement do not justify its publication, there is nothing else in it to do so. I have not tried, moreover, in seeking for the best and clearest arrangement, to avoid what has been already used by others. I have freely taken from every source, whatever, in the way of expression or classification, seemed good for my purpose. The teacher who is familiar with the various Latin grammars issued within the last twenty years, will find much taken directly from them; more than I can acknowledge in detail. On questions of fact and usage, I have depended almost entirely on Roby's Latin Grammar, and have drawn freely on his citations from Latin authors, for illustrative examples. His full collections of illustrative words and sentences have saved a great amount of labor that would have been needed to find appropriate illustrations.

I shall be grateful for criticism from any source, especially for corrections or suggestions from teachers who may have occasion to test the value of the book by actual use with classes.

F. A. BLACKBURN.

SAN FRANCISCO, CAL., *Feb.* 17, 1883.



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ESSENTIALS OF LATIN GRAMMAR.



PART I. — SOUNDS.

1. Alphabet and Pronunciation.

The Latin alphabet has no **w**; otherwise it is like the English. 1

The vowels are **a, e, i, o, u**. They are sounded, when long, like the same vowels in the English words, *father, they, pique, ore, rude*. When short, they have the same sound, but more shortly uttered; nearly like the same vowels in *half, them, pick, obey, full*. 2

[1] **K** is found in Old Latin, but is rare in the later language, being replaced by **c**. **Q** is used for **c** before **v**. **I** was used for both **i** and **j**, and **u** for both **u** and **v**; but they are often distinguished in modern print, except that **u** is used for **v** after **q, g, and s**. (For the sake of exactness, they are distinguished in this book, **j** and **v** being always consonants, **i** and **u** vowels.)

Y and **z** are, strictly speaking, not Latin letters, but were borrowed from the Greek. They are found only in Greek words.

[2] Long vowels are marked **ā, ē, ī, ō, ū**; short, **ă, ě, ĭ, ǫ, ŭ**. Sometimes in manuscripts and inscriptions long vowels are indicated by writing them double. For long **ī**, **ei** is written in such cases (not **ii**).

EUPHONIC CHANGES OF VOWELS.

(a) Before final consonants, except **s**, long vowels are often shortened.
(b) Before **ns** and **nf** short vowels are lengthened.
(c) The short vowels are often "weakened," sometimes from a shifting of the accent, often without any apparent reason. The tendency in vowel-weakening is from "open" to "close." (See 3.) Thus **a** weakens to **o** and **u**, or to **e** and **i**; **o** weakens to **u**, **e** to **i**. Less often **o** weakens to **e**, **u** to **i**.

(d) The same weakening sometimes takes place in long vowels and diphthongs, but rarely.

(e) This tendency is checked and modified by various causes, a common one being the character of the following sound. Thus the open vowels (see 3) are favorites before two consonants, the close ones before single mutes; the open vowels before liquids and spirants, the close ones before nasals and **s**.

-
- | | |
|----|--|
| 3 | A, e, o , are <i>open</i> vowels; i, u , <i>close</i> vowels. |
| 4 | The diphthongs are made up of an open vowel-sound, followed by a close one. Each sound is uttered, but the two are run into one syllable in pronunciation. |
| 5 | The diphthongs are ae, oe, ei, au, eu . Ae is sounded like English <i>ay</i> (= <i>yes</i>); oe like <i>oi</i> in <i>toil</i> ; au like <i>ou</i> in <i>loud</i> ; ei as in <i>eight</i> ; eu as in <i>feud</i> . |
| 6 | The consonants are sounded as in English, except that |
| 7 | C and g are always “hard,” as in <i>cave, give</i> . |
| 8 | J sounds like <i>y</i> in <i>young</i> . |
| 9 | T sounds like <i>t</i> in <i>tongue</i> . |
| 10 | S sounds like <i>s</i> in <i>sin</i> . |
| 11 | V sounds like <i>w</i> in <i>win</i> . |
-

[3] So named from the fact that the organs of speech are more open, or less open in uttering them. **A** is more open than **e** or **o**; the latter are, therefore, sometimes called “medial” vowels.

[4] In Old Latin is found the complete schedule of diphthongs, **ai, ei, oi, au, eu, ou**. In the later language **ai** becomes **ae**; **ei** usually becomes **ē** or **i**; **oi** becomes **oe**; **ou** becomes **ū**. In some cases this weakening tendency has gone still further, weakening **ae** and **oe** also to **ē** and **ū**. The simple vowels which thus replace the older diphthongs then become subject to the same weakening tendency as single vowels.

[6] **H** is sounded as in English, but seems to have originally had a stronger sound, as it stands in place of an older guttural mute. Before **s** and **t** it changes or reverts to **c**.

M and **s** in Old Latin seem to have been but slightly sounded, and, when final, are often dropped.

Y and **z** of Greek words are generally sounded as in English, but it is supposed that **y** had the sound of French **u**.

The compounds **ch, th, ph**, are also found in Greek words. It is customary to sound them as in English *chasm, thin, phase*, although it is believed that the Romans sounded them in such a way as to give each letter its own sound; *i.e.*, as **c, t, and p**, followed by an **h**-sound.

The consonants are classified as follows :—

12

	Mutes.		Semi-vowels.			
	Breathed.	Voiced.	Nasal.	Liquid.	Spirant.	Sibilant.
Guttural . . .					h	
Linguo-palatal .	c (k, q)	g	n		j	
Linguo-dental .	t	d	n	l, r		s
Labio-dental . .					f	
Labial	p	b	m		v	

X (called a double consonant) is a short way of writing *cs*.

13

[12] The name "voiced" is given to those sounds, the utterance of which is attended by a vibration of the vocal chords, thus making "voice"; the others, consisting of mere expulsion of breath, are called "breathed." Of the semi-vowels, **f** and **s** are breathed; the others are voice-letters, as are also all the vowels. The names "guttural," etc., refer to the organs used in uttering the sounds.

Qv and **gv** are treated as single consonants by the Latins, like single **c** and **g**. In many words the spelling varies between **qv** and **c**.

EUPHONIC CHANGES OF CONSONANTS.

(a) The sounds of **j** and **v** are so much like those of **i** and **u** that they are not only represented by the same letters, but, in poetry, are sometimes interchanged. Thus *abiete* becomes *abjete*; *Gajus* becomes *Gaius*; *cui* becomes *cvi*; *silvae* becomes *siluae*, etc. **V** regularly becomes **u** when brought before a consonant; sometimes **qv** becomes **cu**, but usually **c**.

(b) Doubled consonants at the end of a word are not found in Latin, but one is dropped. Often, also, in the middle of a word, one consonant is written where the derivation or formation would require two.

(c) Between two vowels **s** usually changes to **r**, and **h** and **v** are often dropped. **J** sometimes drops before **i**, and **s** sometimes changes to **r** in other positions than between vowels.

Consonant sounds are often modified when brought together in inflection or word-formation. Usually the preceding sound adapts itself more or less fully to the following. Thus:

(d) Before **s**, **t** and **d** become **s**. [*ss* thus formed is often changed to **s**. See (b) above.]

2. Quantity and Accent.

A syllable is long

- 14** (a) When it contains a long vowel or a diphthong.
15 (b) When its vowel, naturally short, is followed by two consonants.

(e) Before a liquid, **n** is often changed to that liquid.

(f) In the prepositions **ab**, **ad**, **ob**, **sub**, **com**, **in**, this tendency goes much further, and the final sound of these words is assimilated to various sounds. (Assimilation of a preceding to a following sound also occurs in many other cases, which cannot be enumerated or classified in an elementary work.)

In cases (d), (e), and (f), there is entire assimilation of the preceding sound to the following one. In the following, partial assimilation takes place.

(g) Before a breath-consonant, the voice-mutes change to the corresponding breath-mutes. But assimilation often takes place, especially of the final mutes of prepositions, and **dt** and **tt** often change to **st**, **ss**, or **s**. **G**, **h**, **gv**, and **qv** change to **c** before a following **s**, and make **x**, *i.e.*, **cs**. **Bs** is generally written, but is always pronounced as **ps**.

(h) Before a mute the nasals become of the same character as the mute, **m** before labials, **n** before palatals and dentals. (**N** has two sounds, as in English; that of a palatal nasal (Eng. *sing*) before palatal mutes, and that of a dental nasal (Eng. *sin*) elsewhere.) **M** before **s** is changed to **n** or assimilated, but in some cases a parasitical **p** is inserted between **m** and **s**; *e.g.*, **hiemps** (for **hiems**), **sumpsi** (for **sumsi**), etc.

(i) In combinations of consonants difficult to utter, one is often dropped.

(The changes given here are not always made in writing, and it is not easy to decide how fully they were made in speaking. Perhaps it would be the wisest course for a beginner to pronounce the words as he finds them written.)

[14] Whether any particular vowel is long or short, must often be learned by consulting a lexicon, but vowels formed by contraction are long.

[15] A mute or **f** followed by **l** or **r** does not make a long syllable, but a common one. See 18. **X** and Greek **z** are two consonants, and **qv**, **gv** are single consonants. See [12]. To make a long syllable, one of the consonants must be in the same word with the preceding short vowel; a

A syllable is short

(a) When it contains a short vowel.

16

(b) When its vowel, naturally long, is followed by another vowel.

17

A syllable is common

[i.e., long or short at the option of the writer]

(a) When its vowel, naturally short, is followed by a mute or **f** with **l** or **r**.

18

final short vowel seldom makes a long syllable with two consonants of the following word. **Ch**, **th**, **ph** also are single consonants in Greek, and do not make a long syllable, though two consonants are used in Latin to represent them.

[17] An interposed **h** has no effect, and the rule applies to diphthongs as well as to single vowels. But in a few cases a vowel remains long or common, though followed by another vowel; viz.:—

(a) The genitive singular endings, **āī**, **ēī**, **īus**, and the dative singular pronoun **ēī**.

(b) The syllable **fī** in the verb **fīo**, except before **-ēr**.

(c) Proper names in **-āūs**, **-ēūs** [poetical forms for **-ājus**, **-ējūs**. See [12] (a)].

(d) **ēheu**, **dīūs**, **Dīānā**, **ōhe**, **Rhēa**.

(e) Many Greek words, which usually keep their own quantity.

[18] The following combinations occur: **pr**, **br**, **cr**, **gr**, **tr**, **dr**, **fr**; **pl**, **cl**, **fl**. But both consonants must be in the same word with the preceding vowel; in different words (or in different parts of a compound) they make a long syllable. In Greek words, a mute followed by a nasal may make a short syllable with a preceding short vowel.

(The vowels of 15, 17, and 18 are often called long, short, or common *by position*. The expression, though convenient, is inexact as regards long and common syllables; for the syllable, not the vowel, is long or common. Such vowels should have their short sound; but a *long* vowel before two consonants (*e.g.*, before **ns** or **nf**) should, of course, have its long sound. In many cases, however, there is little or no evidence to show the natural quantity of the vowel; but the pupil is more likely to be right in sounding it short.)

The accent in Latin is

- 19 (a) In words of two syllables, on the first syllable.
 20 (b) In words of more than two syllables, on the
penult, if that syllable is long; otherwise,
 on the *antepenult*.

[19] The rules for the accent of Latin words are given by the Latin grammarians, who add also the following statements:—

(a) Prepositions, when standing directly before their nouns, or before an adjective or genitive limiting their nouns, have no accent, but are pronounced as one word with the following. In other positions they are accented, with the exception of **cum** when it is attached enclitically to the ablative of pronoun forms.

(b) The enclitic particles **-ne**, **-ve**, **-ce**, **-met**, **-pte**, **-dum** (also **-qve** when it means *and*, and **cum**, **inde** and **qvando** when attached to a preceding word) have no accent, but cause the accent to fall on the last syllable of the word to which they are attached; e.g., **itáqve**, and thus; **éxinde**, *thenceforth*; **écqvando**, **manédum**, etc.

(c) The accent may stand on the last syllable, or on a short penult, if a syllable has been lost; e.g., **vidén** (for **vidésne**), **illíc** (for **illíce**), **nostrás** (for **nostrátis**), **Vergíli** (for **Vergílii**), etc.

It is customary also, in words of several syllables, to put a secondary accent on the second or third syllable before the accented syllable.

[20] *Penult*, last syllable but one; *antepenult*, last but two.

PART II. — FORMS.

Inflection.

Inflection is a change in the form of a word to denote some modification of its meaning or to show its relation to other words. Nouns, adjectives, pronouns and verbs are inflected in Latin. 21

Inflection in Latin, as in English, consists either in a change in the vowel of the word or in the addition of syllables; far more often the latter. Sometimes both methods are used. 22

Nouns have inflections to denote *number* and *case*. 23

Adjectives have inflections to denote *gender*, *number* and *case*. 24

Pronouns, when used substantively, have the inflections of nouns; when used adjectively, those of adjectives. 25

Verbs have inflections to denote *tense*, *mood*, *person*, *number* and *voice*. 26

Stem and Suffixes; Theme and Endings.

Inflection, in Latin, usually consists in adding certain syllables to the ground-form or basis of the inflected word. This ground-form or basis is called a *stem*, and the added syllables are called *suffixes*. 27

[21] *E.g.*, **servus**, slave; **servi**, slave's; **pastor**, shepherd; **pastores**, shepherds; **ama-s**, love-st; **ama-t**, love-s; **ama-vit**, love-d; etc.

The inflection of nouns, adjectives and pronouns is often called *declension*; that of verbs, *conjugation*.

- 28 When the stem ends in a vowel and the suffix begins with a vowel, the resulting contraction often obscures both stem-ending and suffix. For convenience of memorizing we therefore divide inflected words not only into stem and suffix but also into *theme* and *ending*.
- 29 The *theme* is that part of the word which remains unchanged in inflection. The *endings* are the letters or syllables added to the theme to make the various forms of the word.

Forms of Nouns and Adjectives.

GENDER.

- 30 There are three genders: *masculine*, *feminine*, *neuter*.
- 31 Gender, in Latin, is fixed either by the meaning or by the form. When fixed by the meaning, it is called *natural* gender; by the form, *grammatical*.

Rules of natural gender: —

- 32 (a) { Names of *male* beings } are masculine.
- 33 { Names of *rivers* and *mountains* }
- 34 { Names of *female* beings } are feminine.
- 35 (b) { Names of *trees* and *plants* }
- 36 { Names of *countries*, *towns* and *islands* }
- 37 (c) { *Indeclinable* nouns } are neuter.
- 38 { *Phrases* or *clauses* used as nouns }
- 39 (d) { Names that may be used of *either* sex } are common.
- 40 { Some names of *beasts*, *birds*, *fishes* and *insects* }

[29] The theme is always the same as the stem with its final vowel removed, and the endings consequently contain the final vowel of the stem and the suffixes, both often obscured by contraction. If the stem ends in a consonant, the stem and theme are the same, and the endings are the simple suffixes.

[31] The rules of grammatical gender will be given with the various declensions.

PERSON, NUMBER, AND CASE.

In <i>person</i> and <i>number</i> the Latin is like the English.	41
There are five cases in common use; viz.: <i>nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, ablative</i> . Two other cases, a <i>locative</i> and a <i>vocative</i> , are found in a few words.	42
The nominative corresponds to the English nominative, being the case of the subject.	43
The genitive corresponds to the English possessive.	44
The dative corresponds to the English indirect objective.	45
The accusative corresponds to the English direct objective.	46
The vocative corresponds to the English nominative in direct address.	47
The ablative and locative have no corresponding cases in English.	48

[33] **Hadria**, the *Adriatic*, is masculine, like names of rivers.

The gender of *rivers, trees, countries*, etc., is the result of the simplicity of primitive thought and conception, which gave life and feeling to inanimate objects. In many of these, however, the gender is fixed by the form, and they come under the rules of grammatical gender. In most words, also, there is no contradiction of form and meaning.

[37] Strictly speaking, the neuters of 37 and 38 fix their gender neither by meaning nor by form, but they are put here for convenience. Words quoted only for their form, without regard to meaning, come under the head of indeclinable nouns; e.g., **pater dixi**, *I said "pater"*; **pater est dissyllabum**, "*pater*" is *dissyllabic*.

[39] Common; i.e., sometimes *masculine*, sometimes *feminine*.

[40] But in most of these sex is not thought of, and they are either masculine or take grammatical gender.

Words borrowed from the Greek keep the gender they have in that language.

- 49 The nominative and vocative are sometimes called *direct* cases, the others *oblique*. The oblique cases are often rendered into English by prepositions. The genitive is most often rendered by *of*; the dative, by *to* or *for*; the locative, by *at* or *in*; the ablative, by *from*, *by*, *in* or *with*.

The Declensions.

- 50 Nouns and adjectives are inflected by adding to the stem the proper case-suffixes. As these suffixes differ in certain cases and are often obscured in form by contraction with the final vowel of the stem, we have six forms of declension, as the stem ends in a consonant or in one of the vowels, **a, e, i, o, u**.

- 51 These six forms fall naturally into two groups; viz.:
 A. Stems in an open vowel (**a, e, o**).
 B. Stems in a consonant or a close vowel (**i, u**).

[49] The details of the use of the cases must be learned from the Syntax. Only enough is given here to enable the pupil to master elementary exercises.

[51] These groups are distinguished by different case-suffixes in certain cases; most clearly in the genitive, where A has sg. **-ī**, pl. **-rūm**; B, sg. **-īs**, pl. **-ūm**.

Nouns and adjectives are usually classified into declensions according to the ending of the genitive singular; and lexicons give, therefore, not the stem, but the nominative and genitive singular. That the pupil may be able to refer each word to its proper declension, the usual method of classification is here added.

First Declension,	gen.	sg.	ending	-ae	= a -stems.
Second	"	"	"	-ī	= o -stems.
Third	"	"	"	-īs	= consonant and i -stems.
Fourth	"	"	"	-ūs	= u -stems.
Fifth	"	"	"	-ēī	= e -stems.

The ending of the genitive singular, therefore, distinguishes all vowel-stems except those in **-ī**. Rules for distinguishing **i**-stems from consonant-

THE A-DECLENSION. STEMS ENDING IN -A.

The theme of any **a**-stem may be found by dropping the ending of the genitive singular, **-ae**. The stem is found by adding **a** to the theme. 52

The final **a** of the stem combines with the case-suffixes to make the following case-endings, by adding which to the theme any **a**-stem may be declined: — 53

<i>Sg. N.</i>	-ā	<i>Pl. N.</i>	-ae	<i>E.g., mens</i>	ā	<i>mens</i>	ae	
<i>G.</i>	-ae	<i>G.</i>	-ārūm	<i>mens</i>	ae	<i>mens</i>	ārūm	
<i>D.</i>	-ae	<i>D.</i>	-īs	<i>mens</i>	ae	<i>mens</i>	īs	54
<i>Ac.</i>	-ām	<i>Ac.</i>	-ās	<i>mens</i>	ām	<i>mens</i>	ās	
<i>Ab.</i>	-ā	<i>Ab.</i>	-īs	<i>mens</i>	ā	<i>mens</i>	īs	

The locative singular of **a**-stems has the ending **-ae**. 55

The gender of **a**-stems is feminine. 56

stems, by the forms of the nominative and genitive singular, will be found under the **i**-declension.

[54] The uncontracted ending **-āī** is sometimes found in the genitive singular; also **-um** for **ārūm** in the genitive plural.

Familia, in combination with **pater**, **mater**, **filius**, or **filia**, sometimes has the ending **-ās** in the genitive singular. The same ending is found in a few other words in old Latin.

Dea and **filia** usually form the dative and ablative plural with the ending **-ābūs**; a few others rarely.

In poetry, words borrowed from the Greek often keep Greek endings in the singular. The following are found: nom. **-ē**, **-ās**, **-ēs**; gen. **-ēs**; acc. **-ān**, **-ēn**; abl. **-ē**. But the regular Latin endings are common.

Various old endings are found in inscriptions and old Latin; viz.: gen. sg. **-aes**; dat. sg. **-ai** (diphthong?); abl. sg. **-ād** (the original abl. ending); nom. pl. **-as**; dat. and abl. pl. **-eis** (another spelling of **-īs**. See [2]). In a few instances stems in **-ia** contract **-iīs** in the dat. and abl. pl. to **-īs**.

[56] The rules of grammatical gender given with the declensions apply only to such nouns as do not come under the rules of natural gender, 32-40.

THE *E*-DECLENSION. STEMS IN *-E*.

57 The theme of any *e*-stem may be found by dropping the genitive singular ending, *-ēī*. The stem is found by adding *e* to the theme.

The case-endings are: —

	<i>Sg. N. -ēs</i>	<i>Pl. N. -ēs</i>	<i>E.g., di ēs</i>	<i>di ēs</i>
	<i>G. -ēī</i>	<i>G. -ērŭm</i>	<i>di ēī</i>	<i>di ērŭm</i>
58	<i>D. -ēī</i>	<i>D. -ēbŭs</i>	<i>di ēī</i>	<i>di ēbŭs</i>
	<i>Ac. -ēm</i>	<i>Ac. -ēs</i>	<i>di ĕm</i>	<i>di ēs</i>
	<i>Ab. -ē</i>	<i>Ab. -ēbŭs</i>	<i>di ē</i>	<i>di ēbŭs</i>

59 Stems in *-e* are feminine,

60 But *dies* is usually masc.; *meridies*, always so.

THE *O*-DECLENSION. STEMS IN *-O*.

61 The theme of any *o*-stem may be found by dropping the genitive singular ending, *-ī*. The stem is found by adding *o* to the theme.

The case-endings are: —

FOR MASCULINES.

	<i>Sg. N. -ŭs</i>	<i>Pl. N. -ī</i>	<i>E.g., hort ŭs</i>	<i>hort ī</i>
	<i>G. -ī</i>	<i>G. -ōrŭm</i>	<i>hort ī</i>	<i>hort ōrŭm</i>
62	<i>D. -ō</i>	<i>D. -īs</i>	<i>hort ō</i>	<i>hort īs</i>
	<i>Ac. -ŭm</i>	<i>Ac. -ōs</i>	<i>hort ŭm</i>	<i>hort ōs</i>
	<i>Ab. -ō</i>	<i>Ab. -īs</i>	<i>hort ō</i>	<i>hort īs</i>

[58] The ending of the genitive and dative singular is commonly *-ēī* when the theme ends in a consonant; viz.: in *fides*, *plebes*, *res*, *spes*.

Old or unusual endings are found; viz.: gen. sg. *-ēs*, *-ē*, *-ī*; dat. sg. *-ē*, *-ī*. Stems in *-e* lack the plural except *dies* and *res*, and a few found in the nom. and acc. pl.; viz.: *acies*, *effigies*, *facies*, *series*, *species*, *spes*; with *eluvies* (nom.) and *glacies* (acc.). Other forms are cited by grammarians, but not found in literature.

A locative *diē* is found in old Latin, and in certain (so-called) adverbs of time: *postridiē*, *pridiē*, etc.

FOR NEUTERS.

<i>Sg. N.</i> -ŭm	<i>Pl. N.</i> -ă	<i>E.g.,</i> dōn ŭm	don ă	
<i>G.</i> -ī	<i>G.</i> -ōrŭm	don ī	don ōrŭm	
<i>D.</i> -ō	<i>D.</i> -īs	don ō	don īs	63
<i>Ac.</i> -ŭm	<i>Ac.</i> -ă	don ŭm	don ă	
<i>Ab.</i> -ō	<i>Ab.</i> -īs	don ō	don īs	

Masculine **o**-stems have a vocative singular with the ending -ĕ. 64

The locative singular of **o**-stems has the ending -ī. 65

Most masculine stems in -ĕro drop the endings of the nominative and vocative singular, and many of them syncopate ĕ in all the other cases. 66

Stems in -io contract -iĕ of the vocative singular to ī, often also -iī of the genitive singular to ī. 67

Deus has no vocative singular. In the plural, 68

[62] The older endings -ōs, -ōm, are sometimes found for -ūs, -ŭm, especially after **v**; also -um (or, after **v**, -om) for -ōrum.

Old endings, found in inscriptions, etc., are gen. sg. -oe (?), -ei (see [2]); dat. sg. -oi; abl. sg. -ōd; nom. pl. -ēs, -ē, -oe; also -ei (see [2]); dat. and abl. pl. -oes, -ōbus (in **duo** and **ambo**, see [72]).

Nouns borrowed from the Greek sometimes keep Greek endings. The following are found: nom. sg. masc. -ōs; neut. -ōn; gen. sg. -ō; acc. sg. -ōn, -ō; nom. pl. masc. -oe; gen. pl. -ōn. Many Greek words are confused in their forms, taking, in certain authors, or in certain cases, the endings of **o**-stems; at other times, or in other cases, the endings of consonant-stems.

[66] Thus (from the stem **puĕro**) **puer**, **puĕri**, **puĕro**, etc.; (from the stem **agĕro**) **ager**, **agri**, **agro**, etc. **Vir** (stem **vīro**) drops the nom. and voc. sg. endings. In old Latin, however, these endings are sometimes kept.

[67] The voc. sg. of **Tullius**, for example, is **Tulli**. The accent in these shortened forms remains unchanged; *e.g.*, **Domíti** (gen. or voc.); **impĕri** (gen.). See [19], (c). Other cases of stems in -io sometimes contract **ii** to **ī**. Stems in -ājo, -ĕjo, when **j** changes to **i** [see [12] (a)], suffer a similar contraction.

[68] Some editors print **diī** and **diīs** also.

besides the regular forms, it has also nominative **dī**, dative and ablative **dīs**.

- 69 Stems in **-o** with nominative singular ending **-ūm** are neuter; others are masculine.

ADJECTIVE-STEMS IN **-a** AND **-o**.

- 70 Adjective-stems in **-a** and **-o** are declined like noun-stems of like form. (The feminine is an **a**-stem; the masculine and neuter, **o**-stems.)

- 71 A few adjectives have in all genders **-iūs** for genitive singular ending, and **-ī** for dative singular.

- 72 **Duo** and **ambo** have special irregularities.

[69] But **carbāsus**, **humus**, and **vannus** are feminine; **alvus** and **colus** usually so. **Domus** (see [115]) is feminine.

For **pelāgus**, **virus**, **vulgus**, neuter, see [115].

[70] Adjective stems in **-io** are regular, and are not shortened in the genitive and vocative singular.

[71] Viz., **alius**, **nullus**, **solus**, **totus**, **ullus**, **unus**, **alter**, **uter**, **neuter**. In poetry **-iūs** is found, and, rarely, the regular endings.

Alius has an ending **-ūd** for **-ūm** in the neut. sg. nom. and acc., and contracts **-iūs** of the gen. sg. to **-iūs**. (An older stem **ali** is found in compounds and derivatives, and in the rare forms of the nom. sg. **alis**, **alid**. See under the I-declension, 94 ff.)

Satur drops the nom. sg. masc. ending (like stems in **-ēro**).

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

altūs	altā	altūm	totūs	totā	totūm
altī	altae	altī	totīūs	totīūs	totīūs
altō	altae	altō	totī	totī	totī
altūm	altām	altūm	totūm	totām	totūm
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.
tenēr	tenērā	tenērūm	altēr	altērā	altērūm
tenērī	tenērae	tenērī	alterīūs	alterīūs	alterīūs
tenērō	tenērae	tenērō	altērī	altērī	altērī
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

THE CONSONANT-DECLENSION. STEMS IN A CONSONANT.

The theme of any consonant-stem may be found by dropping the genitive singular ending, *-īs*. The stem is the same as the theme.

The case-endings are : —

FOR MASCULINES AND FEMININES.

<i>Sg. N.</i>	<i>-s</i>	<i>Pl. N.</i>	<i>-ēs</i>	<i>E.g.,</i>	<i>dux (= duc s)</i>	<i>duc ēs</i>
<i>G.</i>	<i>-īs</i>	<i>G.</i>	<i>-ūm</i>		<i>duc īs</i>	<i>duc ūm</i>
<i>D.</i>	<i>-ī</i>	<i>D.</i>	<i>-ībūs</i>		<i>duc ī</i>	<i>duc ībūs</i>
<i>Ac.</i>	<i>-ēm</i>	<i>Ac.</i>	<i>-ēs</i>		<i>duc ĕm</i>	<i>duc ēs</i>
<i>Ab.</i>	<i>-ē</i>	<i>Ab.</i>	<i>-ībūs</i>		<i>duc ĕ</i>	<i>duc ībūs</i>

FOR NEUTERS.

<i>Sg. N.</i>	—	<i>Pl. N.</i>	<i>-ă</i>	<i>E.g.,</i>	<i>căpūt</i>	<i>capītă</i>
<i>G.</i>	<i>-īs</i>	<i>G.</i>	<i>-ūm</i>		<i>capīt īs</i>	<i>capīt ūm</i>
<i>D.</i>	<i>-ī</i>	<i>D.</i>	<i>-ībūs</i>		<i>capīt ī</i>	<i>capīt ībūs</i>
<i>Ac.</i>	—	<i>Ac.</i>	<i>-ă</i>		<i>capūt</i>	<i>capītă</i>
<i>Ab.</i>	<i>-ē</i>	<i>Ab.</i>	<i>-ībūs</i>		<i>capīt ĕ</i>	<i>capīt ībūs</i>

<i>ătēr</i>	<i>ătră</i>	<i>ătrūm</i>	<i>ūtēr</i>	<i>ŭtră</i>	<i>ŭtrūm</i>
<i>atrī</i>	<i>atrae</i>	<i>atrī</i>	<i>utrīūs</i>	<i>utrīūs</i>	<i>utrīūs</i>
<i>atrō</i>	<i>atrae</i>	<i>atrō</i>	<i>utrī</i>	<i>utrī</i>	<i>utrī</i>
<i>etc.</i>	<i>etc.</i>	<i>etc.</i>	<i>etc.</i>	<i>etc.</i>	<i>etc.</i>

[72] <i>duō</i>	<i>duae</i>	<i>duō</i>			
<i>duōrum</i>	<i>duārum</i>	<i>duōrum</i>	<i>ambō</i>	<i>ambae</i>	<i>ambō</i>
<i>duōbūs</i>	<i>duābūs</i>	<i>duōbūs</i>	<i>ambōrūm</i>	<i>ambārūm</i>	<i>ambōrūm</i>
<i>duōs, duō</i>	<i>duās</i>	<i>duō</i>	<i>etc.</i>	<i>etc.</i>	<i>etc.</i>
<i>duōbūs</i>	<i>duābūs</i>	<i>duōbūs</i>			

[74]

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

[(*m*), (*f*), (*n*); and (*c*) show the gender.]

<i>princeps (c)</i>	<i>consŭl (m)</i>	<i>hiems (f)</i>	[78] <i>gĕnŭs (n)</i>	<i>mĕl (n)</i>	[12] (<i>b</i>)
<i>principīs</i>	<i>consŭlīs</i>	<i>hiĕmīs</i>	<i>genĕrīs</i>	<i>mellīs</i>	
<i>principī</i>	<i>consŭlī</i>	<i>hiĕmī</i>	<i>genĕrī</i>	<i>mellī</i>	
<i>etc.</i>	<i>etc.</i>	<i>etc.</i>	<i>etc.</i>	<i>etc.</i>	
<i>mīlēs (m)</i>	<i>actōr (m)</i>	<i>leō (m)</i>	<i>corpŭs (n)</i>	<i>fār (n)</i>	[12] (<i>b</i>)
<i>militīs</i>	<i>actōrīs</i>	<i>leōnīs</i>	<i>corpōrīs</i>	<i>farrīs</i>	
<i>etc.</i>	<i>etc.</i>	<i>etc.</i>	<i>etc.</i>	<i>etc.</i>	

- 76** The last vowel of the nominative singular is often weakened in other cases when a syllable is added. See [2] (c). But in *s*-stems the stronger vowel is retained before *r*, though weakened before *s* in the nominative singular.
- 77** The locative singular of consonant-stems ends in *-ī*.
- 78** Masculine and feminine semivowel-stems drop the ending of the nominative singular.
- 79** Final *n* of a stem falls after *o* in the nominative singular.

pecūs (<i>f</i>)	ěbūr (<i>n</i>)	hōmō (<i>c</i>) 79	mōs (<i>m</i>)
pecūdīs	ebōrīs	homīnīs	mōrīs
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.
sīlex (<i>c</i>)	aggēr (<i>m</i>)	nōmēn (<i>n</i>)	tellūs (<i>f</i>)
sīlicīs	aggērīs	nomīnīs	tellūrīs
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.
rex (<i>m</i>)	pātēr (<i>m</i>) 80	cārō (<i>f</i>) [115]	aequōr (<i>n</i>)
rēgīs	patrīs	carīs	aequōrīs
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

In Greek words the Greek endings are sometimes kept. The following are found; viz.: gen. sg. *-ōs*; dat. sg. *-ī*; acc. sg. *-ā*; nom. pl. *-ēs*; gen. pl. *-ōn*; dat. pl. *-ī*; acc. pl. *-ās*; nom. and acc. pl. neut. *-ē* (contracted from *-ēā*). Greek stems in *-āt* sometimes take a dat. and abl. pl. ending *-īs* like *o*-stems, though this is not a Greek ending in consonant-stems. See [62].

Old case-endings of consonant-stems are gen. sg. *-us*, *-es*; dat. sg. *-e*; abl. sg. *-ed*, *-id*, *-i*; dat. and abl. pl. *-ebus*.

[76] *S*-stems (except *vas*, see [115]) regularly become *r*-stems when a case-suffix is added. See [12] (c). Sometimes the final *s* of the nom. and acc. sg. becomes *r*, thus making them *r*-stems throughout. This change seems to have taken place in *jecur* and *robur*, which show the weaker vowel in the nominative, though the stronger *ō* appears in the other cases; and perhaps *ebur* and *femur*, which show the same peculiarity, may be explained in the same way.

[78] Except *hiem* (the only stem in *-m*), nom. *hiems* [or *hiemps*. See [12] (*h*)].

[79] Not always, however, in nouns borrowed from the Greek.

A few stems in **-ĕr** syncopate **ĕ**, except in the nominative singular. (Compare stems in **-ĕro**, 66.) 80

A few cases occur where consonant-stems take the endings of **i**-stems. Such forms are irregular, a result of the confusion caused by the close likeness of the two declensions. 81

Most mute-stems are feminine, 82

But { stems in **-ĭc** with nom. in **-ex** } are masculine. 83
 " **-ĭt** " " **-ĕs** }

Stems in **-ōn** are masculine, 84

But abstracts in **-iōn** are feminine. 85

Stems in **-ĭn** with nominative in **-o** are feminine. 86

Stems in **-ĭn** with nominative in **-ĕn** are neuter. 87

Stems in **-l** are masculine. 88

Stems in **-r** and **-s** are neuter, 89

But stems in **-ōr** and **-ōs** are masculine. 90

[80] **Viz. : pater, mater, frater, accipĭter.**

[81] **Viz. : an abl. sg. ending -i, or gen. pl. -ium.** The latter is not unusual in stems in **-tāt**, which seem to have once been **i**-stems.

The following exceptions to the rules of gender are added for completeness, the more usual words being printed in larger type. **Hiems** (the only stem in **-m**) is feminine.

[82] **grex, paries, pes, calix, fornix,** are masculine.

lapis, adeps, forceps, larix, varix, are common.

caput, cor, are neuter.

[83] **silex, cortex, forfex, imbrex, obex, rumex,** are common.

[86] **ordo, cardo, turbo,** are masculine.

cupĭdo, margo, are common.

[87] **pecten** is masculine; (**sangvis**, see [115], is masculine).

[88] **fel** and **mel** are neuter (also **sal** sometimes in singular).

[89] **agger, carcer, asser, later, vesper, vomer,** are masculine.

arbos, tellus, are feminine; **cinis, pulvis,** common; **cucūmis,** masculine.

[90] **os** is neuter.

CONSONANT-STEM ADJECTIVES.

- 91 Adjectives with consonant-stems are declined like noun-stems of like form, but most of them take *-ī* as well as *-ē* for the ablative singular ending,—a result of their likeness to *i*-stems. They comprise:—
- 92 (a) Adjectives in the comparative degree.
- 93 (b) Imparisyllabic adjectives with themes ending in a *short* syllable.

[92] Comparatives are thus declined:—

Sg. M. and F.	N.	Pl. M. and F.	N.	Sg. N.	Pl. M. and F.	N.
altiōr	altiūs	altiores	altiora	plūs	plures	plura
	altiōris		altiorum	(plūris)		plurium
	altiori		altioribus			pluribus
	altiozem altiūs	altiores	altiora	plus	plures	plura
	altiore(ī)		altioribus	(plure)		pluribus

Plus is defective in the sg., and the forms **pluris** and **plure** are rare. In the gen. pl. it takes the ending **-ium** of *i*-stems. Its compound **complūres** (only plural) has in old Latin **complur-ia** as well as the regular **complūra**.

[93] Parisyllabic, having the same number of syllables in all cases of the singular. Those *a*- and *o*-stem adjectives which have become imparisyllabic by the loss of the nominative singular ending (*i.e.*, stems in **ēro** and **satur**) are, of course, not included.

The adjectives included in (b) are few, and their meanings usually cause them to be used only of persons. They have no separate form in the singular for the neuter gender, but when necessary use the masc. and fem. form of the nom. as nom. and acc. neuter sg. They are declined as follows:—

Sg. M. and F.	N.	Pl. M. and F.	N.	Sg. M. and F.	N.	Pl. M. and F.	N.
divēs		divites	[divita]	pauper		pauperes	paupera
divītis		divitum		paupēris		pauperum	
diviti		divitibus		pauperi		pauperibus	
divitem dives		divites	[divita]	pauperem pauper		pauperes	paupera
divite		divitibus		paupere		pauperibus	

As exceptions to (b), must be set down a few *i*-stems; viz.: **par** and **celer**, which drop the nom. sg. ending (see [102]); also **hebes**, **teres**,

THE I-DECLENSION. STEMS IN I.

The theme of any i-stem may be found by dropping the genitive singular ending, **-īs**. The stem is found by adding **i** to the theme. 94

The following classes contain all the i-stems in common use; viz.:— 95

praecox, and compounds of **-plex** (except **supplex**). See [108]. A few adjective compounds of noun-stems have themes ending in a *long* syllable, but are declined, of course, like the nouns from which they are made; e.g., **discolor**, **discolōris**, etc. Only a few forms of such are found, and it has not seemed necessary to add a third class to contain them.

[94] I-stems have become much confused with consonant-stems through their close likeness in declension, and have been changed into consonant-stems in certain cases by the loss of **i**. They cannot, therefore, be distinguished by the ending of the gen. sg. as other vowel-stems can, since the **i** is always lost in that case.

A comparison of i-stem nouns with more primitive forms in Latin or kindred languages, shows that the **i** has arisen in many cases from an older **a**, **e**, **o**, or **u**, by weakening. Some i-stems show the older **e** in certain cases. In other words, the **i** is not found in kindred words in other languages, and seems to be added in Latin.

The **i** is kept or lost as follows:—

In Class I., kept in nom. sg. (sometimes as **e**); also in some words in acc. and abl. sg.; lost in gen. sg., and usually in abl. sg. The form of the dat. sg. would be the same whether **i** be kept or lost, and the acc. sg. ending **-em** may be considered an older form for **-im** (like **-ēs** for **-īs** in the nom. sg.), or a consonant-stem ending after **i** is lost.

In Class II., kept in the abl. sg.; also in a few words (as **e**) in the nom. and acc. sg.; lost in gen. sg., usually in nom. and acc. sg. The dative may be either, as in Class I.

In Class III., lost throughout the singular.

In the plural of all three classes, **i** may be kept throughout; but it is usually lost in the nom. and often in the acc. of masc. and fem. nouns.

Occasionally, however, **i** is kept in cases where it is usually lost, or lost in cases where it is usually kept. This occurs more often in poetry for metrical convenience.

- 96 I. Parisyllabic nouns in **-es** and **-is**.
 97 II. Neuters in **-e**, and neuters with themes in **-āl** or **-ār**.
 98 III. Nouns with themes ending in an impure mute.
 These, however, are **i**-stems only in the plural,
 having lost **i** in the singular.
 99 The case-endings of **i**-stems of Class I. (masculine
 and feminine) are: —

<i>Sg. N.</i>	-ēs	-īs	<i>Pl. N.</i>	-ēs (-īs)
<i>G.</i>	-īs	-īs	<i>G.</i>	-iūm
<i>D.</i>	-ī	-ī	<i>D.</i>	-ībūs
<i>Ac.</i>	-ēm	-īm, -ēm	<i>Ac.</i>	-īs, -ēs
<i>Ab.</i>	-ē	-ī, -ē	<i>Ab.</i>	-ībūs
<i>E.g., N.</i>	nūbēs	nubēs	turrīs	turrēs
<i>G.</i>	nubīs	nubiūm	turrīs	turriūm
<i>D.</i>	nubī	nubībūs	turrī	turrībūs
<i>Ac.</i>	nubēm	nubīs (ēs)	turrīm (ēm)	turrīs (ēs)
<i>Ab.</i>	nubē	nubībūs	turrī (ē)	turrībūs

[96] Of Class I., **canis** and **juvénis** lose **i** and become consonant-stems in the plural; **sedes** and **vates** usually; occasionally, also, a few others.

[98] Impure mute; *i.e.*, a mute preceded by a consonant. Of course nouns of this kind are not included if the gen. sg. ending shows them to be **a**-, **o**-, or **u**-stems.

Cor, though an **i**-stem in compounds, loses **i** in the plural also, and becomes a consonant-stem throughout. Many other monosyllables, especially those with a long stem-syllable, give evidence of having once been **i**-stems, and though the **i** is usually lost, it sometimes appears, especially in the abl. sg. or gen. pl. The Latin writers and grammarians were evidently uncertain as to the proper form in these words. All such words are put by the classification here given in the consonant declension, where the preponderance of evidence places them; but a list is subjoined, containing those words in which a pupil may occasionally meet with **i**-stem forms; *viz.*:—

cos, **dos**, **faex**, **fraus**, **glis**, **lis**, **lux**, **mas**, **mus**, **pax**.

as, **nix**, **plebs**, **scrobs**, **trabs**, have a greater claim to be classed as **i**-stems; the older forms, **assis**, **ningvis**, **plebes**, **scrobis**, **trabes**, show that they once belonged to Class I.

The case-endings of *i*-stems of Class II. (neut.) are : **100**

<i>Sg. N.</i>	<i>-ě</i> or —	<i>Pl. N.</i>	<i>-iă</i>
<i>G.</i>	<i>-īs</i>	<i>G.</i>	<i>-iŭm</i>
<i>D.</i>	<i>-ī</i>	<i>D.</i>	<i>-ībŭs</i>
<i>Ac.</i>	<i>-ě</i> or —	<i>Ac.</i>	<i>-iă</i>
<i>Ab.</i>	<i>-ī (ě)</i>	<i>Ab.</i>	<i>-ībŭs</i>

<i>E.g., N.</i>	<i>mărě</i>	<i>mariă</i>	<i>ănimăl</i>	<i>animăliă</i>
<i>G.</i>	<i>marīs</i>	<i>mariŭm</i>	<i>animălīs</i>	<i>animăliŭm</i>
<i>D.</i>	<i>marī</i>	<i>marībŭs</i>	<i>animălī</i>	<i>animăliībŭs</i>
<i>Ac.</i>	<i>marě</i>	<i>mariă</i>	<i>ănimăl</i>	<i>animăliă</i>
<i>Ab.</i>	<i>marī</i>	<i>marībŭs</i>	<i>animălī</i>	<i>animăliībŭs</i>

I-stems of Class III. have in the plural the same endings as those of Classes I. and II., but the endings of consonant-stems in the singular. (See 74 and 75.) **101**

[99] As acc. sg. ending, *-īm* is found in

Arărim, Ligărim, puppim, sitim, Tibărim, vim.
amussim, burim, cucŭmim, praesăpim (?), ravim, tussim.

As acc. sg. ending, both *-īm* and *-ēm* are found in

febrim, messim, navim, turrim (or **febrem**, etc.).

cravim, cratim, lentim, pelvim, restim, sementim, secŭrim (or cravem, etc.).

As abl. sg. ending, *-ī* is found in

siti, vi.

Aprīli, cucŭmi, Qvintīli, ravi, rumi, secŭri, Sextīli, tussi.

As abl. sg. ending, both *-ī* and *-ě* are found in

aedīli, amni, angui, Arări, avi, civi, classi, colli, febri, fini, igni, imbri, Ligări, navi, orbi, puppi, turri (or **aidīle, amne**, etc.).

axi, corbi, fusti, pelvi, posti, sodăli, strigīli, ungvi (or axe, etc.).

The nom. pl. ending *-īs* (or *-eis*, see [2]) is rare ; in the acc. pl., modern editions usually give one ending in all words to the exclusion of the other. Which one is given is a matter of indifference as a question of grammar.

[100] The abl. sg. ending *-ě* is rare, except in names of towns.

[101] In Class III., only **partim** shows the *i* kept in the acc. sg., and **parti, lacti, sorti**, in the abl. sg. As an adverb, the form **partim** is

- 102** A few stems in **-ĕri** drop the ending of the nominative singular, and syncopate **ĕ** in all other cases. (Compare stems in **-ĕro**, 66, and **-ĕr**, 80.)
- 103** I-stems of Class I. with themes in **n** or **s** are masculine; other i-stems of Class I. are feminine.
- 104** I-stems of Class II. are neuter.
- 105** In Class III. polysyllables are masculine; monosyllables are feminine.

ADJECTIVES WITH STEMS IN *I*.

- 106** Adjectives with i-stems are declined like noun-stems of like form, but those of Class I. have only **-ī**, the regular ending, in the ablative singular; those of Class III. have both **-ī** and **-ĕ**.

common; the other forms are very rare, the **i** being regularly lost in the singular of Class III.

[102] Viz.: **imber**, **linter**, **uter**, **venter**, and a few adjectives in the masculine. **Arar**, **Liger**, and the adjective **par** drop the nom. sg. ending (also **celer** in the masculine), but do not syncopate.

[103] The exceptions in Class I. are:—

(Theme in a mute) **orbis**; *fascis*, *ungvis*; *antes*, *fustis*, *postis*, *sentis*, *vectis*; *masculine*.

corbis, *scrobis*, *torqvis*; *common*.

(Theme in a liquid) **collis**, **imber**; *caulis*, *follis*, *buris*, *torris*, *uter*, *venter*; *masculine*.

callis, *linter*; *common*.

(Theme in a nasal) **finis**, *clunis*; *common*; *cucūmis*, *masculine*.

(Theme in -s) **classis**, **messis**, **tussis**; *feminine*.

[105] The exceptions in Class III. are:—

dens, **fons**, **mons**, **pons**; *masculine*; **cohors**, *feminine*; **lac**, *neuter*.

[106] Adjective-stems in **-ĕri** (except **celer**) generally syncopate **ĕ** in all forms, except in the nom. sg. masc., and drop the ending of that case, thus gaining different forms for masc. and fem. nom. sg. This differen-

To Classes I. and II. belong

Parisyllabic adjectives in **-is** (M. and F.), **-ě** (N.). **107**

To Class III. belong

Imparisyllabic adjectives, with themes ending in a *long* syllable. **108**

tiation of form is not strictly observed, however; **acer**, for example, is *fem.* as well as *masc.* in old Latin, and **acris** *masc.* as well as *fem.*

There is, in general, a stronger tendency toward **i**-stem forms in the adjective than in the noun. This is shown not only in **i**-stem adjectives, which retain the **i** more often than nouns, but also in consonant-stem adjectives, which often take **i** as the ending of the abl. sg. In spite of this tendency, however, the acc. sg. of adjectives has regularly the consonant-stem ending **-ēm**.

[108] To Class III. belong also the numeral multiplicatives in **-plex** (*e.g.*, **duplex**, *two-fold*; **qvintūplex**, *five-fold*; etc.), and the adjectives **hebes**, **teres**, **par**, **præcox**. See [93]. The comparative **plus** is peculiar. See [92].

Adjectives of Class III. have no separate form for the neuter singular, but use the nom. masc. as nom. and acc. sg. neut. To this class belong tribal names in **-ātes** and **-ītes**, and a few other words of like formation, generally found only in the plural, and used substantively (*e.g.*, **Arpinātes**, **optimātes**, etc.), and verbal derivatives in **-trix** (commonly used as feminine nouns of agency) when used as adjectives (*e.g.*, **victrix**).

Adjectives with **i**-stems are declined as follows:—

M. and F.	N.	M.	F.	N.	M. and F.	N.	M. and F.	N.
lěvīs	lěvě	ācēr	ācrīs	ācrě	pār		āmāns	
levīs		ācris	acris	acris	pārīs		amantis	
levī		acri	acri	acri	pari		amanti	
levēm	levě	acrem	acrem	acre	parem	par	amantem	amans
levī		etc.	etc.	etc.	pari(e)		amante(i)	
levēs	leviā	cělēr	cělěrīs	cělěřě	pares	paria	amantes	amantia
leviūm		celěrīs	celeris	celeris	parium		amantium	
levībūs		celeri	celeri	celeri	paribus		amantibus	
levīs(ēs)	leviā	celerem	celerem	celere	parīs(es)	paria	amantes(is)	amantia
levībūs		etc.	etc.	etc.	paribus		amantibus	

A few compounds of consonant noun-stems have themes ending in a long syllable, but are consonant-stems of course, and may be regarded as exceptions. See [93]. Adjectives in the comparative degree are also consonant-stems. See [92] and [93].

THE U-DECLENSION. STEMS IN -U.

109 The theme of any **u**-stem may be found by dropping the genitive singular ending, **-ūs**. The stem is found by adding **-u** to the theme.

The case-endings are : —

FOR MASCULINES.

110	<i>Sg. N.</i>	-ūs	<i>Pl. N.</i>	-ūs	<i>E.g.,</i>	<i>curr ūs</i>	<i>curr ūs</i>
	<i>G.</i>	-ūs	<i>G.</i>	-uūm		<i>curr ūs</i>	<i>curr uūm</i>
	<i>D.</i>	-uī (ū)	<i>D.</i>	-ūbūs, ībūs		<i>curr uī</i>	<i>curr ībūs</i>
	<i>Ac.</i>	-ūm	<i>Ac.</i>	-ūs		<i>curr ūm</i>	<i>curr ūs</i>
	<i>Ab.</i>	-ū	<i>Ab.</i>	-ūbūs, ībūs		<i>curr ū</i>	<i>curr ībūs</i>

FOR NEUTERS.

111	<i>Sg. N.</i>	-ū	<i>Pl. N.</i>	-uā	<i>E.g.,</i>	<i>corn ū</i>	<i>corn uā</i>
	<i>G.</i>	-ūs	<i>G.</i>	-uūm		<i>corn ūs</i>	<i>corn uūm</i>
	<i>D.</i>	-ū	<i>D.</i>	-ūbūs, ībūs		<i>corn ū</i>	<i>corn ībūs</i>
	<i>Ac.</i>	-ū	<i>Ac.</i>	-uā		<i>corn ū</i>	<i>corn uā</i>
	<i>Ab.</i>	-ū	<i>Ab.</i>	-ūbūs, ībūs		<i>corn ū</i>	<i>corn ībūs</i>

[110] The gen. sg. sometimes has the uncontracted ending **-uīs**, the gen. pl. (rarely) the contracted ending **-um**.

The contracted ending **-ū** of the dat. sg. is regular in neuters; rare in masculines.

The fuller ending **-ūbūs** of the dat. and abl. pl. is found in **acus**, **arcus**, **partus**, **tribus**; usually in **artus**, **lacus**, **specus**; sometimes in **portus**, **veru**.

An ending **-ī** occurs a few times in the gen. sg., apparently from confusion with **o**-stems from the same root. **O**-stem forms occur occasionally in other cases also, and many names of plants and trees are confused in their inflection, having both **o**-stem and **u**-stem forms.

Old forms in inscriptions, etc., show the ending of gen. sg. **-uos**. For **-ū** and **-ūs**, **-uu** and **-uus** are sometimes written to show the length of the **ū**. See [2].

A locative **domui** occurs rarely; no other **u**-stems form a locative.

Monosyllabic stems in **-u** retain the suffixes uncontracted with the stem-vowel, and are therefore declined like consonant-stems. 112

U-stems with nominative singular ending **-ūs** are masculine; the others are neuter. 113

Irregular Declension.

Nouns and adjectives are irregular in declension —

(a) From the retention of old endings. 114

(b) From variation of the stem. 115

[112] Viz.: **grūs**, **sūs**, and **lues** (when it drops **i**); with the irregular stems **bū**, **Jū**. But **sūs** has **sūbus** and **sūbus** as well as **suibus**.

The stems **bū** and **Jū** stand for the older diphthongal stems, **bou-**, **Jou-**. The diphthong changes **u** to **v** before a vowel (see [12] (a)), and passes into **ō** or **ū** before a consonant. The forms are: —

bōs	bōves	Jūpīter (Juppiter)
bōvis	bōvum , boum (see [12] (c))	Jōvis
bōvi	bōbus , būbus	Jōvi
bōvem	bōves	Jōvem
bōve	bōbus , būbus	Jōve

The nom. **Jupiter** (old form **Jupater**) is a compound of **pater**. Sometimes the second part is declined **Jupitēris**, etc.

[113] **Domus**, **idus**, **manus**, **tribus**, **colus**, **quinqvātrus**, and **porticus** are feminine.

Acus, **arcus**, **penus**, and **specus** are common.

[114] The irregularities under (a) have been already mentioned with the endings of the various declensions.

[115] The following are irregular from variation of stem: —

balneum (st. **balneo-**); pl. usually **balneae**, etc. (st. **balnea-**).

caro (st. **carōn-**); all other cases from a syncopated stem **carn-** (**carnīs**, **carnī**, etc.).

domus (st. **domu-**); a stem **domo-** is found also in all cases except the nom., dat., and abl. pl., and is more common in the loc. and abl. sg., where the **u**-stem forms are old.

epulum (st. **epūlo-**); pl. **epulae**, etc. (st. **epula-**).

116	(c) From variation of gender.
117	(d) From lack of certain cases.

fames	(st. fame-); but gen. sg. usually famīs (st. fam-).
femur	(st. femōr-); except in nom. and acc. sg., a stem femīn- is equally common.
iter	(st. itēr-); except in nom. and acc. sg., a stem itinēr- is used.
jugērum	(st. jugēro-); pl. jugēra , etc. (st. jugēr-).
jecur	(st. jecōr-); except in nom. and acc. sg., a stem jocinēr- or jocinōr- is equally common.
pelāgus	(st. pelāgus-); only nom. and acc. sg. and nom. and acc. pl. in Greek form pelāgē (contracted from pelageā); other cases from a stem pelāgo- .
sangvis	(st. sangvi-); only nom. sg. Other forms from a stem sangvīn- .
senex	(st. senec-); only nom. sg. Other forms from a stem sen- .
supellex	(st. supellect-); only nom. sg. Other forms from a stem supellectīli- .
virus	(st. virus-); only nom. and acc. sg. Other forms from a stem vīro- .
vas	(st. vas-); pl. vasa , etc. (st. vaso-). In this noun s does not suffer the usual change to r .
vesper	(st. vespēro-); but abl. sg. vespēre (st. vespēr-).
vulgus	(st. vulgus-); only nom. and acc. sg. All other forms from a masc. stem vulgo- , which is found also in nom. and acc. sg.
vis	(st. vi-); pl. vires , etc. (st. viri-).

The only adjectives irregular from variation of stem (except **senex** above, which is usually used as a noun) are the adjective compounds of **caput**, which form the nom. sg. from a syncopated stem; *e.g.*, **praeceps** (st. **praecept-**); but other cases from a stem **praecipīt-**; **praecipītis**, etc.

[116] Nouns in which variation of stem has caused variation of gender are included in [115]. Aside from such, variation of gender causes irregularity of declension in the following:—

caelum	(st. caelo-), neut.; pl. (found only once), caelos , masc.
carbāsus	(st. carbāso-), fem.; pl. neut. carbāsa , etc.
frenum	(st. freno-), neut.; pl. neut. frena , etc., or masc. freni , etc.
jocus	(st. joco-), masc.; pl. neut. joca , etc., or masc. joci , etc.
locus	(st. loco-), masc.; pl. neut. loca , etc., or masc. loci , etc.
rastrum	(st. rastro-), neut.; pl. neut. rastra , etc., or masc. rastri , etc.

[117] Nouns that lack some of their forms are called defective. There are many such in Latin, some of which lack the plural or the singular on account of their meaning; in others, the lack of certain forms seems to be

Numeral Adjectives.

The cardinal numerals, from *one* to *ten*, with **centum** and **mille**, are primitive words; the others are formed from these. **Unus, duo, tres**, and the

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purely accidental. A few neuters have only the nom. and acc. sg., and are called indeclinable.

It has not seemed necessary to add any list of defective nouns. Such a list would be of no practical value to the learner, and would be a very large one if it should contain all the nouns, except those all of whose forms are found in Latin writers. The lexicon must be consulted for such information.

[118] For the declension of **unus**, see 71; of **duo**, [72]. **Tres** is a regular *i*-stem. **Mille** is a regular *i*-stem, but is indeclinable in the singular. The hundreds are regular *a*- and *o*-stems. All cardinals except **unus**, of course, lack the singular, as do all the distributives. See the list below.

The combination of units, tens and hundreds to form the intermediate numbers is made as in English.

A list of numeral adjectives is added for reference. The corresponding numeral adverbs are also given:—

CARDINALS.	ORDINALS.	DISTRIBUTIVES.	NUMERAL ADVS.
1 unus, -a, -um, } <i>one</i> ;	primus, -a, -um, } <i>first</i> ;	singŭli, -ae, -a, } <i>one by one</i> ;	semel, <i>once</i> .
2 duo, -ae, -o, } <i>two</i> ;	alter, -a, -um } secundus, -a, -um	bīni, -ae, -a, } <i>two by two</i> ;	bis, <i>twice</i> .
3 tres, tria	tertius, -a, -um	terni or trini, etc.	ter, <i>thrice</i> .
4 qvattuor	qvartus, -a, -um	qvaterni	qvater, <i>four times</i> .
5 qvinque	qvintus, etc.	qvīni	qvinquiens, etc.
6 sex	sextus	sēni	sexiens
7 septem	septīmus	septēni	septiens
8 octo	octāvus	octōni	octiens
9 novem	nonus	novēni	noviens
10 decem	decīmus	dēni	deciens
11 undċim	undċimus	undēni	undeciens
12 duodċim	duodecīmus	duodēni	duodeciens
13 tredċim	tertius decīmus	terni dēni	terdecimens
14 qvattuordċim	qvartus decīmus	qvaterni dēni	qvaterdecimens
15 qvindċim	etc.	etc.	qvindeciens
16 sedċim			etc.
17 septemdċim			
18 octodċim			
19 novemdċim			

hundreds except **centum**, are declined; also **mille**, when used as a noun. The other cardinals are indeclinable.

CARDINALS.	ORDINALS.	DISTRIBUTIVES.	NUMERAL ADVS.
20 viginti	vicensĭmus	vicēni	viciens
21 viginti unus <i>or</i> unus et viginti	primus et vicensĭmus <i>or</i> unus et vicensĭmus	vicēni singŭli	semel et viciens
22 viginti duo <i>or</i> duo et viginti etc.	etc.	vicēni bini etc.	bis et viciens etc.
30 triginta	tricensĭmus	tricēni	triciens
40 qvadraginta	qvadragensĭmus	qvadragēni	qvadragiens
50 qvinqvaginta	qvinqvagensĭmus	qvinqvagēni	qvinqvagiens
60 sexaginta	sexagensĭmus	sexagēni	sexagiens
70 septuaginta	septuagensĭmus	septuagēni	septuagiens
80 octoginta	octogensĭmus	octogēni	octogiens
90 nonaginta	nonagensĭmus	nonagēni	nonagiens
100 centum	centensĭmus	centēni	centiens
101 centum et unus	centensĭmus primus	centēni singŭli	centiens semel
200 ducenti, -ae, -a	ducentensĭmus	ducēni	ducentiens
300 trecenti	trecentensĭmus	trecēni	trecentiens
400 qvadringenti	etc.	etc.	etc.
500 qvingenti			
600 sescenti			
700 septingenti			
800 octingenti			
900 nongenti			
1000 mille			
2000 duo millia			
3000 tria millia etc.			

For 18, 19, 28, 29, etc., *subtractive* forms (**duodeviginti**, **undetriginta**, etc.) are more common than the regular forms. So also, **duodevincensĭmus**, **duodevicēni**, etc.

In the later language, the endings **-ensĭmus** and **-iens** drop **n** and become **-ēsĭmus**, **-iēs**.

The distributives, besides their regular meaning, *two by two*, *in twos*, etc., are also used with nouns plural in form but singular in meaning. Thus **castra**, *forts*, is the Latin word for a *camp*. **Bina castra** means *two camps* (lit. *forts by twos*, *two sets of forts*). They are also used in expressing multiplication; e.g., **bis dena viginti sunt**, *twice ten is twenty*.

Comparison of Adjectives.

The stem of the comparative degree is formed by adding **-ios** to the theme of the positive. This suffix becomes **-iūs** in the nominative and accusative singular neuter; **-iōr** elsewhere. (For the declension of the comparative, see [92].) 119

The stem of the superlative is formed by adding **-issīmo-**, **-issīma-** to the theme of the positive. 120

Stems in **-ēr-**, **-ēro-**, **-ēri-**, add **-rīmo-** to the theme for the superlative, and a few in **-īli-** add **-līmo-**. 121

Compounds of **-dīcus**, **-fīcus**, and **-vōlus** add the suffixes of comparison to a theme in **-dīcent-**, **-fīcent-**, **-vōlent-**. 122

Many adjectives are not compared. If a comparative or superlative of such is needed, it is formed by prefixing **magis** (*more*); **maxīme** (*most*). 123

[119] Comparison is not inflection, but derivation; but is placed here for convenience.

[121] These stems, if syncopated in the positive, are also syncopated in the comparative, but not in the superlative. **Matūrus** sometimes adds **-rīmo-** for the superlative.

Those which add **-līmo** are **facīlis**, **difficīlis**, **simīlis**, **dissimīlis**, **gracīlis**, **humīlis**.

[122] The themes in **-nt** are participles in formation.

[123] The following have special irregularities:—

bonus	melior	optīmus	infērus	inferior	infīmus, imus
malus	pejor	pessīmus	postērus	posterior	postrēmus, postūmus
magnus	major	maxīmus	supērus	superior	suprēmus, summus
multus	plus (neut.)	plurīmus		citerior	citīmus
parvus	minor	minīmus		interior	intīmus
senex	senior			prior	prīmus
juvēnis	junior			propior	proxīmus
extērus	exterior	extrēmus, or extīmus		ulterior	ultīmus
			vetus		veterrīmus

Many adjectives lack the comparative or superlative. The lacking superlative of **senex** is supplied by the phrase **maxīmus natu**; that of **juvēnis** by **minīmus natu**.

Forms of Pronouns.

- 124** The personal pronouns are **ěgo, tu, sui**. They are peculiar in declension, partly from variation of stem, partly from the retention of older endings lost in the ordinary noun-declension.

They are thus declined: —

EGO (St. *egon-*, *me-*, *nō-*).

<i>Sg.</i> <i>N.</i>	ěgō	<i>Pl.</i>	nōs
	<i>G.</i> (meī)		(nostrūm, nostrī)
	<i>D.</i> mihī, mī		nōbīs
	<i>Ac.</i> mē		nōs
	<i>Ab.</i> mē		nōbīs

- 125**

TU (St. *te-*, *vō-*).

SUI (St. *se-*).

<i>Sg.</i> <i>N.</i>	tū	<i>Pl.</i>	vōs	<i>Sg.</i> —	<i>Pl.</i> —
	<i>G.</i> (tuī)	(vestrūm, vestrī)		(suī)	(suī)
	<i>D.</i> tībī	vōbīs		sībī	sībī
	<i>Ac.</i> tē	vōs		sē, sēsē	sē, sēsē
	<i>Ab.</i> tē	vōbīs		sē, sēsē	sē, sēsē

- 126** The possessive pronouns **meūs, tuūs, suūs, nostēr, vestēr**, are derived from the personal pronouns. They are regular *a-* and *o-*stem adjectives, except that **meūs** forms its vocative singular masculine, **mī**, from an older form **miūs**.

[125] **Sui** is often called the reflexive pronoun, because it refers to the subject of the sentence. For a personal pronoun not referring to the subject, a demonstrative (**is, ille, iste**) is used.

The gen. *sg.* of **ego** and **tu** was **mis, tis**. These forms were lost, and the gen. forms of all the personal pronouns in both numbers are borrowed from the possessives.

The personal pronouns are sometimes emphasized by appending **-met, -te,** or **-pte**. So also, at times, the possessives: **egomet, nosmet, tute, suipte, suopte**, etc.

Med, ted, sed, are old forms for **me, te, se** (*acc.* and *abl.*). The doubled form **sese** is common; **tete** for **te** occurs in old Latin; also **vos-trum** for **vestrum**, and **sibe** or **sibei** for **sibi**.

The demonstrative pronouns have the declension of adjectives, but take the pronominal suffix **-d** in the nominative and accusative singular neuter, and the pronominal endings **-ius**, **-ī**, in the genitive and dative singular of all genders. Certain cases of some of them are regularly emphasized by appending a demonstrative or intensive syllable (**ī**, **cě** or **c**). 127

The demonstratives are **īs**, **istě**, **illě**, **ipsě**, **hīc**, **īdem**. 128

Is (stem **i-**, usually lengthened to **io-**, **eo-**) is thus declined: — 129

<i>Sg. N.</i>	īs	eā	īd	<i>Pl. N.</i>	eī , iī	eae	eā
<i>G.</i>	ējūs	ējūs	ējūs	<i>G.</i>	eōrūm	eārūm	eōrūm
<i>D.</i>	ēī	ēī	ēī	<i>D.</i>	eīs , iīs	eīs , iīs	eīs , iīs
<i>Ac.</i>	eūm	eām	īd	<i>Ac.</i>	eōs	eās	eā
<i>Ab.</i>	eō	eā	eō	<i>Ab.</i>	eīs , iīs	eīs , iīs	eīs , iīs

[127] A few instances are found of the regular adj. endings in the gen. and dat. sg.

The forms strengthened by **-i** are those which end in **-ā**; viz.: nom. sg. fem., and nom. and acc. pl. neut. **ā + i** contracts to **ae**. This strengthening is found in **hīc**; sometimes in **ille** and **iste**. (It occurs also in the relative pronoun. See 138.)

Ce is used to strengthen all the cases, but drops **e** except after **s**. It is used in **hīc**; sometimes in **ille** and **iste**. In the older language various forms occur with an appended **-ce** or **-c**.

[128] A demonstrative stem, **so-**, **sa-**, is said to have been used by Ennius in the forms **sum**, **sam**, **sas**.

For **ille** an older spelling, **olle**, is found in poetry.

[129] From the stem **i-** are formed **is**, **īd**; also the old forms **em** (or **im**) = **eum**, and **ibus** = **eis**. The rest is formed from the longer stem. **Ei** and **eis** are sometimes contracted into monosyllables; **eae** (dat. sg. fem.) and **eābus** (abl. pl. fem.) are found in Cato, and inscriptions show various forms with **ei** written for **i** (according to [2]), and the nom. pl. forms **eis**, **eeis**, **ieis**.

130 Istě (stem *isto-*) is thus declined : —

<i>Sg. N.</i>	<i>istě</i>	<i>istā</i>	<i>istūd</i>	<i>Pl. istī</i>	<i>istae</i>	<i>istā</i>
<i>G.</i>	<i>istiūs</i>	<i>istiūs</i>	<i>istiūs</i>	<i>istōrūm</i>	<i>istārūm</i>	<i>istōrūm</i>
<i>D.</i>	<i>istī</i>	<i>istī</i>	<i>istī</i>	<i>istīs</i>	<i>istīs</i>	<i>istīs</i>
<i>Ac.</i>	<i>istūm</i>	<i>istām</i>	<i>istūd</i>	<i>istōs</i>	<i>istās</i>	<i>istā</i>
<i>Ab.</i>	<i>istō</i>	<i>istā</i>	<i>istō</i>	<i>istīs</i>	<i>istīs</i>	<i>istīs</i>

131 Illě is declined like *istě*.

132 Ipsě is declined like *istě*, but has *ipsūm* in the nominative and accusative neuter singular.

133 Hīc (stem *hi-* or *ho-*) is strengthened by both *-i* and *-ce*, but the latter is not usual except in certain cases.

134 The usual forms are : —

<i>Sg. N.</i>	<i>hīc</i>	<i>haec</i>	<i>hōc</i>	<i>Pl. hī</i>	<i>hae</i>	<i>haec</i>
<i>G.</i>	<i>hūjūs</i>	<i>hūjūs</i>	<i>hūjūs</i>	<i>hōrūm</i>	<i>hārūm</i>	<i>hōrūm</i>
<i>D.</i>	<i>huīc</i>	<i>huīc</i>	<i>huīc</i>	<i>hīs</i>	<i>hīs</i>	<i>hīs</i>
<i>Ac.</i>	<i>hunc</i>	<i>hanc</i>	<i>hōc</i>	<i>hōs</i>	<i>hās</i>	<i>haec</i>
<i>Ab.</i>	<i>hōc</i>	<i>hāc</i>	<i>hōc</i>	<i>hīs</i>	<i>hīs</i>	<i>hīs</i>

[130] A nom. sg. masc. *istūs* is found once.

[132] For *ipse*, *ipsūs* is found. *Iipse* is compounded of *is* and *-pse*, and a few forms occur in which the first part is declined while the second remains unchanged; viz.: *eāpse*, *cumpse*, *campse*, *cōpse*, *eāpse*.

[133] The stem *hi-* is found in *hic*, and in the old forms *hisee* (= *hi*) and *hibus* (= *his*). *Huic* is often monosyllabic (*hvic*).

[134] Other forms of *hic*, chiefly old or poetical, are : —

<i>Sg. N.</i>	<i>hice</i>	<i>hoce</i>	<i>Pl. N.</i>	<i>hisce</i>	<i>haec</i>	<i>haice</i>
<i>G.</i>	{ <i>hoiusce</i> <i>hujusce</i>	{ <i>hoiusce</i> <i>hujusce</i>	<i>G.</i>	{ <i>horunce</i> <i>horunc</i>	{ <i>harunce</i> <i>harunc</i>	
<i>D.</i>	<i>hoice</i>	<i>hoice</i>	<i>D.</i>	{ <i>hibus</i> <i>hisce</i>	{ <i>hibus</i> <i>hisce</i>	<i>hibus</i> <i>hisce</i>
<i>Ac.</i>	<i>hance</i>		<i>Ac.</i>	<i>hosce</i>	<i>hasce</i>	<i>haice</i>
<i>Ab.</i>	<i>hāce</i>		<i>Ab.</i>	{ <i>hibus</i> <i>hisce</i>	{ <i>hibus</i> <i>hisce</i>	<i>hibus</i> <i>hisce</i>

Illē and **istē** are sometimes strengthened by **-i** and **-ce** in the same way as **hīc**. 135

Idēm is formed by appending **-dēm** to the various forms of **is**. The forms **is** and **id** drop **-s** and **-d**. 136

Idēm is thus declined:— 137

<i>Sg.</i> <i>N.</i>	<i>īdem</i>	<i>eādem</i>	<i>īdem</i>	<i>Pl. eīdem</i>	<i>eaedem</i>	<i>eādem</i>
<i>G.</i>	<i>ējusdem</i>	<i>ējusdem</i>	<i>ējusdem</i>	<i>eōrundem</i>	<i>eārundem</i>	<i>eōrundem</i>
<i>D.</i>	<i>eīdem</i>	<i>eīdem</i>	<i>eīdem</i>	<i>eīsdem</i>	<i>eīsdem</i>	<i>eīsdem</i>
<i>Ac.</i>	<i>eundem</i>	<i>eandem</i>	<i>īdem</i>	<i>eōsdem</i>	<i>eāsdem</i>	<i>eādem</i>
<i>Ab.</i>	<i>eōdem</i>	<i>eādem</i>	<i>eōdem</i>	<i>eīsdem</i>	<i>eīsdem</i>	<i>eīsdem</i>

The relative pronoun (stem **qvi-** or **qvo-**) has the strengthening **-i**. See [127]. It is thus declined:— 138

<i>Sg.</i> <i>N.</i>	<i>qvi</i>	<i>qvae</i>	<i>qvōd</i>	<i>Pl. qvi</i>	<i>qvae</i>	<i>qvae</i>
<i>G.</i>	<i>cūjūs</i>	<i>cūjūs</i>	<i>cūjūs</i>	<i>qvōrūm</i>	<i>qvārūm</i>	<i>qvōrūm</i>
<i>D.</i>	<i>cuī</i>	<i>cuī</i>	<i>cuī</i>	<i>qvībūs</i>	<i>qvībūs</i>	<i>qvībūs</i>
<i>Ac.</i>	<i>qvēm</i>	<i>qvām</i>	<i>qvōd</i>	<i>qvōs</i>	<i>qvās</i>	<i>qvae</i>
<i>Ab.</i>	<i>qvō</i>	<i>qvā</i>	<i>qvō</i>	<i>qvībūs</i>	<i>qvībūs</i>	<i>qvībūs</i>

The same pronoun is also used as an interrogative pronoun, but when used substantively has **qvīs**, **qvīd** in the nominative singular for **qvī**, **qvōd**. 139

[135] The forms thus produced are:—

<i>Sg. N.</i>	<i>illic</i>	<i>illaec</i>	<i>illoc, illuc</i>	<i>Pl. N.</i>	<i>illic</i>	<i>illaec</i>	<i>illaec</i>
<i>G.</i>	<i>illiusce</i>	<i>illiusce</i>	<i>illiusce</i>	<i>G.</i>			
<i>D.</i>	<i>illic</i>	<i>illic</i>	<i>illic</i>	<i>D.</i>	<i>illisce</i>	<i>illisce</i>	<i>illisce</i>
<i>Ac.</i>	<i>illunc</i>	<i>illanc</i>	<i>illoc, illuc</i>	<i>Ac.</i>	<i>illosce</i>	<i>illasce</i>	<i>illaec</i>
<i>Ab.</i>	<i>illoc</i>	<i>illac</i>	<i>illoc</i>	<i>Ab.</i>	<i>illisce</i>	<i>illisce</i>	<i>illisce</i>

So also **istic**, **istaec**, **istoc**, etc.

[138] From the stem **qvi-** is formed also an abl. sg. **qvī**, and the old nom. pl. **qvēs**. From the stem **qvo-** is formed also a dat. and abl. pl. **qvīs**. For **cujus**, **cui**, an older spelling, **qvojus**, **qvoi** (or **qvojei**), is found. **Cui** is often monosyllabic (**cvī**).

[139] A few cases of **qvī**, **qvōd** used substantively occur, and **qvīs**, **qvīd**, are not rarely used adjectively; **qvīs** and **qvēm** are sometimes

- 140** The same pronoun is also used as an indefinite pronoun. When so used, it has the same forms as when used interrogatively, but usually does not take the strengthening *-i*.
- 141** Various indefinite pronouns compounded of **quīs** or **qvī** occur, all of which have the same declension; but those in which **qvīs** or **qvī** forms the second part usually do not take the strengthening *-i*.

Forms of the Verb.

- 142** The Latin verb has the following forms:—
- 143** (a) Three tenses for incomplete action: *present, imperfect, future*.
- 144** (b) Three tenses for completed action: *perfect, pluperfect, future perfect*.

feminine. **Qvinam** or **qvisnam** is a more emphatic interrogative; it has the same forms, with *-nam* appended.

From the stem **qvo-** is formed a possessive interrogative, **cūjus, a, um** (= *whose*). It is antiquated, and only a few forms occur; viz.: **cujā, cujum, cujam, cujā, cujae**.

[140] **Qvi** or **qvis** is indefinite after **si, nisi, ne, num**, rarely elsewhere.

[141] A list is added for reference:—

alīqvi or alīqvis	alīqva	alīqvod or alīqvīd	<i>some, any.</i>
ecqvi or ecqvis	ecqva, ecqvae	ecqvod or ecqvīd	<i>any?</i>
qvidam	qvaedam	qvoddam	<i>a, a certain.</i>
qvicunqve	qvaecunqve	qvodecunqve	<i>whatever.</i>
qvīlibet	qvaelībet	qvodlībet	<i>which you like, any.</i>
qvivis	qvaevis	qvodvis	<i>which you will, any.</i>

So **qviviscunqve**, etc.

qvisqvis (once **qvīqvi**). Only a few forms are found.

qvisqvam	qvīdqvam, qvicqvam	<i>any at all.</i>
qvispīam	qvaepīam qvīdpīam	<i>any.</i>
qvisqve	qvaeqve qvōdqve or qvīdqve	<i>every.</i>

So **unusqvīsqve**, etc.

{ *whichever you will,*
any.
whosoever.

It should be noticed that **ecqvis**, being at the same time interrogative and indefinite, forms **ecqvā** and **ecqvae**, without the *i* and with it.

The present tense has three moods: <i>indicative, subjunctive, imperative.</i>	145
The imperfect, perfect, and pluperfect have two moods: <i>indicative, subjunctive.</i>	146
The future and future perfect have one mood: <i>indicative.</i>	147
These forms are often called, collectively, the " <i>finite verb.</i> " Beside these, certain derivative noun- and adjective-forms are usually treated in connection with the verb; viz.: —	148
(a) Three verbal nouns called <i>infinitives.</i>	149
(b) A verbal noun called the <i>gerund.</i>	150
(c) A verbal noun called the <i>supine.</i>	151
(d) Four verbal adjectives called <i>participles.</i>	152
Of the finite verb only the incomplete tenses form a passive voice. For the passive of the complete tenses the Latin, like the English, uses the verb " <i>be</i> " with a passive participle.	153
The passive voice of the incomplete tenses was originally reflexive in its formation and meaning, and	154

[149] Viz.: a present active infinitive, a present passive infinitive, a perfect active infinitive. The infinitives are indeclinable nouns.

[150] The gerund is a neuter o-stem used only in the oblique cases of the singular.

[151] The supine is a u-stem used only in the acc. and abl. sg.

[152] Viz.: a present active participle, a present passive participle, a future active participle, and a perfect passive participle. The first is an i-stem of Class III.; the others are regular a- and o-stems.

[154] The name "deponent" was given to these verbs by the old grammarians, because they were supposed to have "*laid off*" their active form. In many of them the reflexive force can be seen; e.g., **fruor**, *I enjoy (myself)*; **vescor**, *I eat (feed myself)*; **cingor**, *I bind on (myself)*, etc. That

the reflexive use still remains in some verbs; *e.g.*, **vector**, *I turn [myself]*. Many verbs thus used have lost the active form entirely, and use only the passive. They are usually translated into English by active forms, and are called "*deponent*" verbs.

Verb-Stems.

- 155** Verb-stems, like noun-stems, may end in **a, e, i, o, u**, or a consonant. Of stems in **-o** only a few forms are found.
- 156** In most verbs two or three forms of the stem are found, — the verb-stem proper (*simple stem*), a modification of it used in the incomplete tenses (*present stem*), and another modification of it used in the complete tenses (*perfect stem*).
- 157** In many verbs the present stem is the same as the

they are not true passives, is shown by the fact that many of them are transitive and govern a direct object. In many of them it is not easy to see the reflexive meaning, possibly because the original meaning is not known, and they are apparently equivalent to active forms.

Deponent verbs form the gerund, supine, and participles of the active as well as the passive voice, and their passive participles are sometimes passive in meaning. In the tenses for completed action, though these are not reflexive in formation, the meaning follows that of the incomplete tenses, and these forms also are usually rendered into English by the active voice.

[155] Open vowel-stems, as in nouns, differ in certain points from close vowel and consonant-stems, but the division is not sufficiently marked to make the grouping of any importance.

The only **o**-stems are **no-sc-o** (and its compounds), **fō-rem**, etc. (imp. subj.) and **fō-re** (pres. inf.), and a few participles which have become adjectives in use.

[157] The modifications mentioned here, especially *nasalizing*, are sometimes by analogy carried also into the perfect-stem or simple-stem forms.

simple stem. When not so, it is formed from the simple stem, —

- | | |
|---|------------|
| (a) By reduplication. | 158 |
| (b) By lengthening the stem-vowel. | 159 |
| (c) By adding or inserting a nasal. | 160 |
| (d) By adding -sc , -esc , or -isc . | 161 |
| (e) By adding -a , -e , or -i . | 162 |

The perfect stem is rarely like the simple stem. **163**
Usually it is formed from the simple stem, —

[158] Reduplication consists in repeating before the stem its initial consonant-sound with the following vowel,⁸ often with a weakening of the latter. Stems ending in a vowel lose the final vowel when reduplicated, and become consonant-stems.

Reduplication is found in the present stem in four cases; viz.: **bib-o** (**ba-**), **gign-o** (for *gigēn-o*, **gēn-**), **ser-o** (for *ses-o*, **sa-**), and **sist-o** (**sta-**). **Sisto** is peculiar in repeating only the initial **s** and the vowel (not **st**).

[159] *E.g.*, **dūc-o** (**dūc-**), **dīc-o** (**dīc-**).

[160] *E.g.*, **sīn-o** (**si-**), **pung-o** (**pūg-**), **find-o** (**fīd-**).

[161] *E.g.*, **ac-esc-o** (**ac-**), **no-sc-o** (**no-**), **reviv-isc-o** (**reviv-**). When **sc** is added after a consonant, there is usually some obscurity of formation from euphonic loss.

Verbs which form the present stem in this way usually mean *to become* (so and so), *to begin to be* (so and so). They are often called, therefore, *inceptive* or *inchoative* verbs.

[162] A few present stems end in **ll**, which seems to have arisen from **li**; viz.: **cell-o**, **pell-o**, **toll-o**, also **sall-o** or **salio** (*to salt*). But **sali-o** (*to leap*) and **sepeli-o** do not change.

[163] Possibly all cases of likeness of form between the perfect stem and the simple stem are the result of loss. Stems in a close vowel often drop the **v** of the perfect stem; those in **-u** show the **v** only in old Latin. Others have lost a reduplication syllable, and possibly the stem-vowel is lengthened in others, where the syllable is long by position, and the real quantity of the vowel therefore not clear.

164	(a) By reduplication.
165	(b) By lengthening the stem-vowel.
166	(c) By adding -s.
167	(d) By adding -u or -v.
The "principal parts" of a verb are:—	
168	ACTIVE { The pres. ind. act., 1st sg. } which show the <i>present</i> stem. { The pres. inf. act. { The perf. ind. act., 1st sg., which shows the <i>perfect</i> stem. { The supine, which shows the <i>simple</i> stem.
169	PASSIVE { The pres. ind. pass., 1st sg. } which show the <i>present</i> stem. { The pres. inf. pass. { The perf. pass. participle, which shows the <i>simple</i> stem.

[164] In the perfect stem **ā** is regularly weakened to **ē** in the reduplication syllable, and to **ē** or **ī** in the stem syllable. **Bib-i** (**ba-**) seems to owe its form to the present **bib-o**; possibly **stīt-i** has been affected in the same way by **sist-o**.

The stems which begin with two consonants (**scīd-**, **sta-**, **spōnd-**) drop the initial **s** of the stem, after the reduplication syllable (making **sci-cīd-i**, **ste-t-i**, **spo-pond-i**). For the loss of the final vowel of **ba-**, **da-**, and **sta-** in **bib-i**, **ded-i**, **stet i** or **stīt-i**, see [158].

The reduplication of the perfect stem is usually dropped when the verb is compounded with a preposition. A few stems only retain it.

[165] *E.g.* **lēg-i** (**lēg-**); **pāv-i** (**pāv-**). The stem-vowel **ā** becomes **ē** when lengthened to form the perfect stem, except when followed by **v** (*viz.*: in **cāv-i**, **fāv-i**, **lāv-i**, **pāv-i**) or **b** (in **scāb-i**). Thus, **ēg-i** (**āg-**), **pēg-i** (**pāg-**), etc.

[167] **U** is added after consonants, **v** after vowels, and the preceding vowel is regularly made long before the added **-v**.

[168] *E.g.*, **am-o**, **amā-re**, **amāv-i**, **amā-tum**, passive, **am-or**, **amā-ri**, **amā-tus**. These are the forms usually given in grammars and lexicons, and are based on a classification of verbs according to the ending of the pres. inf. as follows:—

First conjugation; inf. endings **-ārē**, **-ārī**, = **a**-stems.

Second " " " **-ērē**, **-ērī**, = **e**-stems.

Third " " " **-ērē**, **-ī**, = cons. **u**- and short **i**-stems.

Fourth " " " **-īrē**, **-īrī**, = long **i**-stems.

In most verbs the pres. inf. would be enough to identify the present stem, but short **i**-stems lose the **i** and become consonant-stems in this form. The pres. ind. is therefore added to identify such.

Verbal Suffixes.

The suffixes of the finite verb contain two elements, one of which shows the mood and tense (*mood-and-tense sign*), the other the person and number (*person-and-number suffix*). 170

The mood-and-tense signs are added to the stem as follows:— 171

Pres. ind., *none*; pres. imp., *none*; pres subj., *ī* in *a*-stems, *ā* elsewhere. 172

Imp. ind., *ēbā* or *ēbā*; imp. subj., *ērē*. 173

Fut. ind., *ēb* in open vowel-stems, *ā* and *ē* elsewhere. 174

Perf. ind., (*ēs* or *īs*? See 188); perf. subj., *ērī*. 175

Plup. ind., *ērā*; plup. subj., *issē*. 176

Fut. perf. ind., *ēr*. 177

[170] The names “tense-and-mood sign,” “person-and-number suffix,” are used for convenience, without implying any theory of their origin, simply because they show to the eye or ear the tense and mood, person and number, and, incidentally, the voice of the verb. Grammarians are agreed that the suffixes of person and number are stunted forms of personal pronouns; and most of the signs of tense and mood are generally thought to be derived from the verbs “*be*” (stems *-es*, *-fu*) and “*go*” (stem *-ī*).

[171] Mood-and-tense signs are added, of course, to the present stem in the incomplete tenses, and to the perfect stem in the complete tenses.

[172] In the pres. subj. *ī* contracts with a preceding *a* to *ē*.

[173] The imp. ind. sign is *-ēbā* after a consonant or *u*, and almost always after *i*. *ēbā* is used after open vowels, also in old Latin after *i*, but in both *ēbā* and *ēb* the initial vowel is always absorbed. (See [178]).

[174] The fut. ind. sign *ā* is found in the first sg.; *ē* in the other forms. In old Latin, stems in *i* sometimes form the future with the sign *ēb*.

[175] The perf. subj. sign is often *-ērī*, a result of confusion with the fut. perf. ind. which closely resembles it in form and use.

- 178** By adding the tense-and-mood signs to the stem, there is formed a stem or base for each tense. To this tense-base are added the suffixes of person and number, as follows: —

Indicative and subjunctive.

179	ACT. 1. - <i>ōm</i> 2. - <i>īs</i> 3. - <i>īt</i> 1. - <i>īmūs</i> 2. - <i>ītīs</i> 3. - <i>unt</i>
180	PASS. 1. - <i>ōr</i> 2. - <i>ērīs</i> 3. - <i>ītūr</i> 1. - <i>īmūr</i> 2. - <i>īmīnī</i> 3. - <i>untūr</i>

[178] The initial short vowel of the mood-and-tense signs is regularly absorbed by a preceding open vowel; *e.g.*, *amā-bām* (= *ama-ēba-m*), *monē-re-m* (= *mone-ēre-m*), etc. A preceding *i* either absorbs it, *e.g.*, *audi-re-m* (st. *audi-*), or drops before it, leaving a consonant-stem, *e.g.*, *cap-ēre-m* (st. *capi-*). The signs *ēbā*, *ēb*, *ēre-*, therefore, appear in the forms *bā*, *b*, *rē* after stems ending in *a*, *e*, or *i*. In the complete tenses the stem ends in *a*, *e*, or *i* only when *v* is dropped. In such cases the initial vowel of the sign is regularly absorbed by *a* or *e*, very rarely by *i*. See [215]. The long vowels *ā*, *ē*, *ī* are not absorbed, but *ī* contracts with a preceding *a* to *ē*, as stated in [172]. The loss of *ē* of the imp. subj. sign is a characteristic of certain irregular verbs. (See [220]).

The suffixes appear in the form given here after *u* or a consonant. After *a*, *e*, *i*, the initial vowel of the suffix is absorbed, making the preceding *a*, *e*, or *i* long. But *o* remains unabsorbed after stem-vowels, and itself absorbs the preceding *a*; and *u* remains unabsorbed after the stem-vowel *i*.

The initial vowel of the person-and-number suffixes, strictly speaking, is not a part of them. Its origin is a matter of dispute; some regard it as a simple insertion to attach the suffixes to the tense base (*connecting vowel*); others as an addition to the stem to fit it for the reception of the suffixes (*modal vowel* or *thematic vowel*). Its omission is one peculiarity of certain irregular verbs. (See [220]).

[179] *m* of -*ōm* falls when *ō* is unabsorbed. -*īm* for -*ōm* is found in *sum*. -*ūmus*, an older form of -*īmūs*, is found in *sūmus*, *qvaesūmus*, *volūmus*. -*īnt* for -*ītnt* is found in the fut. perf., evidently by confusion with the perf. subj. -*īs*, -*īmūs*, -*ītīs*, due, no doubt, to the same cause, are not unusual in the fut. perf. for -*īs*, -*īmūs*, -*ītīs*.

[180] -*ērē* for *ērīs* is not unusual in poetry; rare in prose.

Imperative.

ACT.	2. -ě, -itō	3. -itō	2. -itě, -itōtě	3. -untō	181
PASS.	2. -ěřě, -itōr	3. -itōr	2. -imīnī	3. -untōr	182

The suffixes of the non-finite forms are:—

(a) From the present stem.

ACT.	Pres. inf., -ěřě; pres. part., -enti; gerund, -endo.	183
PASS.	Pres. inf., -ěřī; pres. part., -endo.	184

(b) From the perfect stem.

ACT.	Perf. inf. (-sě ? see below, 190).	185
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(c) From the simple stem.

ACT.	Fut. part., -tūro- (-sūro-); supine, -tu- (-su-).	186
PASS.	Perf. part., -to- (-so-).	187

The perfect indicative active and perfect infinitive active have peculiar endings not easily resolved into sign and suffix. They are:—

Perf. act. ind., -ī, -istī, -it; -īmūs, -istīs, -ērunt.	189
Perf. act. inf., -issě.	190

[181] The imperative forms in -tō, -tōte, -ntō; -tōr, -ntōr are sometimes called future imperative. They are antiquated forms, retained in poetry and legal phraseology, rare elsewhere.

[183] For -endo, -undo is found; also for -enti, -unti in one verb (eo, "go").

[184] For -ěřī, -ī is found in consonant and u-stems. An older suffix -ěřiēr (in consonant and u-stems, -iēr), is found in old Latin.

[186] -itūro-, -itu-, -ito-, are found in some cases. This may have been the form after vowel-stems, the ě disappearing by absorption. -sūro-, -su-, -so-, are euphonic changes of -tūro-, -tu-, -to-, used after certain letters. (See [209]).

[188] The perf. act. ind. and inf. seem to have -is or -ēs as mood-and-tense sign, and to add the suffixes directly to the tense-base without the suffix-vowel. But some forms are quite irregular, and the second sg. ind. shows a suffix -ti, not found elsewhere in the Latin verb.

[189] For -ērunt, -ērě is found, also rarely -ērunt.

The Conjugations.

- 191** There are five forms of conjugation for the incomplete tenses, according to the form of the stem. They are:—

- 1st. Stems in **-a**.
- 2d. Stems in **-e**.
- 3d. Stems in a consonant or in **-u**.
- 4th. Stems in short **-ī**.
- 5th. Stems in long **-ī**.

In the complete tenses there is but one form for all verbs.

- 192** The theme of the incomplete tenses is found by dropping the ending of the present infinitive.

- 193** The incomplete tenses are inflected by adding to the theme the following endings:—

[191] The final **u** of verb-stems does not contract with the vowel of the suffix, and there is therefore no difference between **u**-stems and consonant-stems in their inflection. Compare monosyllabic noun **u**-stems, 112. These different forms of inflection, like the different declensions, are simply variations resulting from contraction of stem-ending and suffix-vowel. The stems in short **-ī** and long **-ī** are so called for convenience of distinction, since the **i** appears as short in one and long in the other. But it seems probable that the final vowel of all verb-stems is properly short, and that its length in the incomplete tenses is the result of absorbing the suffix-vowel. The usual arrangement of conjugations (see [168]) places short **ī**-stems with consonant and **u**-stems. As in **i**-stem nouns, the **i** of these verb-stems is lost in certain forms, leaving a consonant-stem.

Only one form of conjugation is found in the complete tenses, because the perfect stem always ends in **u** or a consonant, and consequently no variation of form from contraction takes place. The few cases in which the perfect stem is made to end in **a**, **e**, or **i** by the loss of **v** are too rare to make a difference of conjugation.

A-STEMS.

	Present Active.				Present Passive.			
	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.
<i>Sg.</i>								
1	ō	ēm		Inf. ārē	ōr	ēr		
2	ās	ēs	ā, ātō		āris	ēris	ārē, ātōr	Inf. āri
3	āt	ēt	ātō	Part. anti-	ātūr	ētūr	ātōr	
<i>Pl.</i>								
1	āmūs	ēmūs		Ger. ando-	āmūr	ēmūr		Part. ando-
2	ātis	ētis	ātē, ātōtē		āminī	ēminī	āminī	
3	ant	ent	antō		antūr	entūr	antōr	

194

	Imperf. Active.		Imperf. Passive.		Fut. Act.	Fut. Pas.
	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Indic.
<i>Sg.</i>						
1	ābām	ārēm	ābār	ārēr	ābō	ābōr
2	ābās	ārēs	ābāris	ārēris	ābis	ābēris
3	ābāt	ārēt	ābātūr	ārētūr	ābit	ābitūr
<i>Pl.</i>						
1	ābāmūs	ārēmūs	ābāmūr	ārēmūr	ābimūs	ābimūr
2	ābātis	ārētis	ābāminī	ārēminī	ābitis	ābiminī
3	ābant	ārent	ābantūr	ārentūr	ābunt	ābuntūr

195

EXAMPLE FOR PRACTICE.

Stem, āma-; theme, ām-.

[194]	ACTIVE	{ am ō am ās am āt etc.	{ am ēm am ēs am ēt etc.	{ am ā, am ātō am ātō etc.	{ am ārē am āns, -ntis, etc. am andī, etc.
		{ am ōr am āris am ātūr etc.	{ am ēr am ēris am ētūr etc.	{ am ārē, am ātōr am ātōr etc.	{ am āri am andūs, ā, ūm
[195]	ACTIVE	{ am ābām am ābās am ābāt etc.	{ am ārēm am ārēs am ārēt etc.		{ am ābō am ābis am ābīt etc.
		{ am ābār am ābāris am ābātūr etc.	{ am ārēr am ārēris am ārētūr etc.		{ am ābōr am ābēris am ābītūr etc.

E-STEMS.

196

	Present Active.				Present Passive.			
	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.
<i>Sg.</i>								
1	eō	eām		Inf. ērē	eōr	eār		
2	ēs	eās	ē, ētō		ērīs	eāris	ērē, ētōr	Inf. ērī
3	ēt	eāt	ētō	Part. entī	ētūr	eātūr	ētōr	
<i>Pl.</i>								
1	ēmūs	eāmūs		Ger. endo-	ēmūr	eāmūr		Part. endo-
2	ētīs	eātīs	ētē, ētōtē		ēmīnī	eāmīnī	ēmīnī	
3	ent	eant	entō		entūr	eantūr	entōr	

197

	Imperf. Active.		Imperf. Passive.		Fut. Act.	Fut. Pas.
	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Indic.
<i>Sg.</i>						
1	ēbām	ērēm	ēbār	ērēr	ēbō	ēbōr
2	ēbās	ērēs	ēbāris	ērērīs	ēbīs	ēbērīs
3	ēbāt	ērēt	ēbātūr	ērētūr	ēbīt	ēbītūr
<i>Pl.</i>						
1	ēbāmūs	ērēmūs	ēbāmūr	ērēmūr	ēbīmūs	ēbīmūr
2	ēbātīs	ērētīs	ēbāmīnī	ērēmīnī	ēbītīs	ēbīmīnī
3	ēbant	ērent	ēbantūr	ērentūr	ēbunt	ēbuntūr

EXAMPLE FOR PRACTICE.Stem, **mōne-**; theme, **mōn-**.

[196]	ACTIVE	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} mōn\ eō \\ mon\ ēs \\ mon\ ēt \\ etc. \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} mon\ eām \\ mon\ eās \\ mon\ eāt \\ etc. \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} mon\ ē, \\ mon\ ētō \\ mon\ ētō \\ etc. \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} mon\ ērē \\ mon\ ēris, -ntīs, etc. \\ mon\ endī, etc. \end{array} \right.$
	PASSIVE	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} mon\ eōr \\ mon\ ēris \\ mon\ ētūr \\ etc. \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} mon\ eār \\ mon\ eāris \\ mon\ eātūr \\ etc. \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} mon\ ērē, \\ mon\ ētōr \\ mon\ ētōr \\ etc. \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} mon\ ērī \\ mon\ endūs, ā, ūm \end{array} \right.$
[197]	ACTIVE	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} mon\ ēbām \\ mon\ ēbās \\ mon\ ēbāt \\ etc. \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} mon\ ērēm \\ mon\ ērēs \\ mon\ ērēt \\ etc. \end{array} \right.$		$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} mon\ ēbō \\ mon\ ēbīs \\ mon\ ēbīt \\ etc. \end{array} \right.$
	PASSIVE	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} mon\ ēbār \\ mon\ ēbāris \\ mon\ ēbātūr \\ etc. \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} mon\ ērēr \\ mon\ ērērīs \\ mon\ ērētūr \\ etc. \end{array} \right.$		$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} mon\ ēbōr \\ mon\ ēbērīs \\ mon\ ēbītūr \\ etc. \end{array} \right.$

CONSONANT-STEMS AND U-STEMS.

	Present Active.				Present Passive.			
	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.
<i>Sg.</i>								
1	ō	ām		Inf. ěrě	ōr	ār		Inf. ĭ
2	īs	ās	ě, itō		ērīs	ārīs	ěrě, itōr	
3	it	āt	itō	Part. enti-	itūr	ātūr	itōr	
<i>Pl.</i>								Part. endo-
1	īmūs	āmūs			īmūr	āmūr		
2	ītīs	ātīs	itě, itōtě	Ger. endo-	iminī	āminī	iminī	
3	unt	ant	untō		untūr	antūr	untōr	

198

	Imperf. Active.		Imperf. Passive.		Fut. Act.	Fut. Pas.
	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Indic.
<i>Sg.</i>						
1	ēbām	ērēm	ēbār	ērēr	ām	ār
2	ēbās	ērēs	ēbārīs	ērērīs	ēs	ērīs
3	ēbāt	ērēt	ēbātūr	ērētūr	ēt	ētūr
<i>Pl.</i>						
1	ēbāmūs	ērēmūs	ēbāmūr	ērēmūr	ēmūs	ēmūr
2	ēbātīs	ērētīs	ēbāminī	ērēminī	ētīs	ēminī
3	ēbant	ērent	ēbantūr	ērentūr	ent	entūr

199

EXAMPLE FOR PRACTICE.

Stem, *rěg-*; theme, *rěg-*.

[193]	ACTIVE	{ rěg ō reg īs etc.	{ reg ām reg ās etc.	{ reg ě, reg itō etc.	{ reg ěrě reg ěns, -ntīs, etc. reg endī, etc.
	PASSIVE	{ reg ōr reg ěrīs etc.	{ reg ār reg ārīs etc.	{ reg ěrě, reg itōr etc.	{ reg ĭ reg endūs, ā, ūm
[199]	ACTIVE	{ reg ēbām reg ēbās etc.	{ reg ěrēm reg ěrēs etc.		{ reg ām reg ēs etc.
	PASSIVE	{ reg ēbār reg ēbārīs etc.	{ reg ěrēr reg ěrērīs etc.		{ reg ār reg ěrīs etc.

Stems in *-u* have the same endings as consonant-stems, the vowel being unabsorbed. *E.g.*, from the stem *tribu-* we have —

ACTIVE.	tribu ō, etc.	tribu ām, etc.	tribu ě, etc.	tribu ěrě, tribu ěns, tribu endī.
PASSIVE.	tribu ōr, etc.	tribu ār, etc.	tribu ěrě, etc.	tribu ĭ, tribu endūs, ā, ūm.
ACTIVE.	tribu ēbām, etc.	tribu ěrēm, etc.		tribu ām, etc.
PASSIVE.	tribu ēbār, etc.	tribu ěrēr, etc.		tribu ār, etc.

200

There are two forms of inflection of verb-stems in *-i*. In one, *i* is short and falls before a short syllable, leaving a consonant-stem; in the other, *i* absorbs the vowel of a following short syllable, and is long. In both, *i* stands before long syllables.

SHORT I-STEMS.

201

	Present Active.				Present Passive.			
	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.
<i>Sg.</i>								
1	iō	iām		Inf. ērē	iōr	iār		Inf. ī
2	is	iās	ē, itō	Part. ienti-	ērīs	iārīs	ērē, itōr	
3	it	iāt	itō		itūr	iātūr	itōr	
<i>Pl.</i>								Part. iendo-
1	īmūs	iāmūs		Ger. iendo-	īmūr	iāmūr		
2	ītīs	iātīs	itē, itōtē		īmīnī	iāmīnī	īmīnī	
3	iunt	iant	iuntō		iuntūr	iantūr	iuntōr	

202

	Imperf. Active.		Imperf. Passive.		Fut. Act.	Fut. Pas.
	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Indic.
<i>Sg.</i>						
1	iēbām	ērēm	iēbār	ērēr	iām	iār
2	iēbās	ērēs	iēbārīs	ērērīs	iēs	iērīs
3	iēbāt	ērēt	iēbātūr	ērētūr	iēt	iētūr
<i>Pl.</i>						
1	iēbāmūs	ērēmūs	iēbāmūr	ērēmūr	iēmūs	iēmūr
2	iēbātīs	ērētīs	iēbāmīnī	ērēmīnī	iētīs	iēmīnī
3	iēbant	ērent	iēbantūr	ērentūr	ient	ientūr

[200] The *i* before the long vowel remains, though the vowel be shortened before final *m*, *t*, *r*, see [12] (a), and falls in the pres. inf. pass. where the proper ending *-ērī* has been shortened to *-ī*.

EXAMPLE FOR PRACTICE. Stem, *căpī-* or *căp-* (by dropping *i*); theme, *căp-*.

[201]	ACTIVE	{ <i>căp iō</i> <i>cap iās</i> <i>cap iāt</i> etc.	<i>cap iām</i> <i>cap iās</i> <i>cap iāt</i> etc.	<i>cap ē,</i> <i>cap itō</i> <i>cap iō</i> etc.	<i>cap ērē</i> <i>cap iēns, -ntīs,</i> etc. <i>cap iendī,</i> etc.
	PASSIVE	{ <i>cap iōr</i> <i>cap ērīs</i> <i>cap itūr</i> etc.	<i>cap iār</i> <i>cap iārīs</i> <i>cap iātūr</i> etc.	<i>cap ērē,</i> <i>cap itōr</i> <i>cap iōr</i> etc.	<i>cap ī</i> <i>cap iendūs, ā, ūm</i>

LONG I-STEMS.

	Present Active.				Present Passive.			
	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.
<i>Sg.</i>								
1	iō	iām		Inf. irē	iōr	iār		
2	īs	iās	i, itō		īris	iāris	irē, itōr	Inf. irī
3	it	iāt	itō	Part. ienti-	itūr	iātūr	itōr	
<i>Pl.</i>								
1	īmūs	iāmūs		Ger. iendo-	īmūr	iāmūr		Part. iendo-
2	ītīs	iātīs	itē, itōtē		īmīnī	iāmīnī	īmīnī	
3	iunt	iant	iuntō		iuntūr	iantūr	iuntōr	

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	Imperf. Active.		Imperf. Passive.		Fut. Act.	Fut. Pas.
	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Indic.
<i>Sg.</i>						
1	iēbām	irēm	iēbār	irēr	iām	iār
2	iēbās	irēs	iēbāris	irērīs	iēs	iērīs
3	iēbāt	irēt	iēbātūr	irētūr	iēt	iētūr
<i>Pl.</i>						
1	iēbāmūs	irēmūs	iēbāmūr	irēmūr	iēmūs	iēmūr
2	iēbātīs	irētīs	iēbāmīnī	irēmīnī	iētīs	iēmīnī
3	iēbant	irent	iēbantūr	irentūr	ient	ientūr

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[202]	ACTIVE	{ cap iēbām cap iēbās etc.	{ cap ērēm cap ērēs etc.	{ cap iām cap iēs etc.
	PASSIVE	{ cap iēbār cap iēbāris etc.	{ cap ērēr cap ērērīs etc.	{ cap iār cap iērīs etc.

EXAMPLE FOR PRACTICE. Stem, audi-; theme, aud-.

[203]	ACTIVE	{ aud iō aud īs aud it etc.	{ aud iām aud iās aud iāt etc.	{ aud ī, aud itō aud itō etc.	{ aud irē aud iēns, -ntīs, etc. aud iendī, etc.
	PASSIVE	{ aud iōr aud īris aud itūr etc.	{ aud iār aud iāris aud iātūr etc.	{ aud ire, aud itōr aud itōr etc.	{ aud irī aud iendūs, ā, ūm
[204]	ACTIVE	{ aud iēbām aud iēbās aud iēbāt etc.	{ aud irēm aud irēs aud irēt etc.		{ aud iām aud iēs aud iēt etc.
	PASSIVE	{ aud iēbār aud iēbāris aud iēbātūr etc.	{ aud irēr aud irērīs aud irētūr etc.		{ aud iār aud iērīs aud iētūr etc.

- 205** The theme of the complete tenses is found by dropping the ending of the perfect indicative active, first person singular.

The endings are the same for all verbs; viz.:—

206

	Perfect Active.			Pluperfect Active.		Fut. Perf. Active.
	Indic.	Subj.	Non-finite.	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.
<i>Sg.</i> 1	ī	ērīm	Inf. issē	ērām	issēm	ērō
2	istī	ērīs		ērās	issēs	ērīs
3	it	ērīt		ērāt	issēt	ērīt
<i>Pl.</i> 1	īmūs	ērīmūs		ērāmūs	issēmūs	ērīmūs
2	istīs	ērītīs		ērātīs	issētīs	ērītīs
3	ērunt	ērint		ērant	issent	ērint

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The lacking complete tenses of the passive voice are supplied, as in English, by the perfect passive participle and the verb “be.”

[206] The theme of the complete tenses ends in **u** or a consonant, and the vowel of the endings therefore remains unabsorbed, except when brought after a vowel by the loss of **v**. See [215].

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

Stem āmāv-	āmāvī	amavērīm		amavērām	amavissēm	amavērō
	amavistī	amavērīs	amavissē	amavērās	amavissēs	amavērīs
	etc.	etc.		etc.	etc.	etc.
“ mōnu-	mōnuī	monuērīm	monuissē	monuērām	monuissēm	monuērō
	etc.	etc.		etc.	etc.	etc.
“ rex-	rexī	rexērīm	rexissē	rexērām	rexissēm	rexērō
	etc.	etc.		etc.	etc.	etc.
“ tribu-	tribuī	tribuērīm	tribuissē	tribuērām	tribuissēm	tribuērō
	etc.	etc.		etc.	etc.	etc.
“ cēp-	cēpī	cepērīm	cepissē	cepērām	cepissēm	cepērō
	etc.	etc.		etc.	etc.	etc.
“ audīv-	audīvī	audivērīm	audivissē	audivērām	audivissēm	audivērō
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

For the variation between **ī** and **i** in the perf. subj. and fut. perf. ind., see [175] and [179].

The theme of the verb-forms from the simple stem may be found by dropping the ending of the supine or of the perfect passive participle.

The endings of the forms from the simple stem are : —

	Supine.	Future Active Participle.	Perf. Pass. Participle.
A-stems . . .	ātu-	ātūro-	āto-
E-stems . . .	ētu-	etūro-	eto-
I-stems . . .	ītu-	itūro-	ito-
O-stems . . .	ōtu-	otūro-	oto-
U-stems . . .	ūtu-	utūro-	uto-
Consonant-stems }	tu- (su-), or itu-	tūro- (sūro-), or itūro-	to- (so-), or ito-

[209] The endings **-ītu-**, **-itūro-**, **-ito-**, though less common in consonant-stems, seem to be the usual form of the suffixes in vowel-stems, — the long vowel being due to the absorption of the **ī** of the suffix. In a few cases, however, vowel-stems show a short vowel in these endings, which may be explained by assuming that the suffix is appended directly to the stem without the vowel, as in most consonant stems. These cases number in all twelve; viz.: **dātus**, **rātus**, **sātus**, **stātus**; **cītus**, **ītus**, **lītus**, **qvītus**, **sītus**; **-clūtus**, **fūturus**, **rūtus**.

Su-, **sūro-**, **so-**, are euphonic changes of **tu-**, **tūro-**, **to-**. They are used after stems ending in a dental-mute (except **tend-**, which has forms with both **t** and **s**, apparently by confusion with its kindred stem **tēn-**) and after a few others, especially stems ending in two consonants with which an added **t** could not easily be pronounced. See [12]. The real form of the stem is often obscured before these suffixes by euphonic change.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

Stem āma-	amātūm, amātū	amātūrūs, ā, ūm	amātūs, ā, ūm
“ dēle-	delētum, delētu	delētūrus, a, um	delētus, a, um
“ audi-	audītum, audītu	audītūrus, a, um	audītus, a, um
“ no-	nōtum, nōtu	nōtūrus, a, um	nōtus, a, um
“ tribū-	tribūtum, tribūtu	tribūtūrus, a, um	tribūtus, a, um
“ cāp-	captum, captu	captūrus, a, um	captus, a, um
“ hāb-	habītum, habītu	habītūrus, a, um	habītus, a, um
“ lūd-	lūsum, lūsū	lūsūrus, a, um	lūsus, a, um

- 210** The participles with the verb “be” are often used as in English with the force of finite verb-forms.
- 211** The present active participle is thus used only when it has become an adjective or noun in force and meaning.
- 212** The future active participle with the verb “be” makes the “first” or “active” periphrastic conjugation, and expresses an intended or destined action.
- 213** The present passive participle with the verb “be” makes the “second” or “passive” periphrastic conjugation, and expresses duty or necessity.
- 214** The perfect passive participle with the verb “be” supplies the lacking complete tenses of the passive voice.

[210] For the inflection of the verb “be,” see [221].

[212] *E.g.,*

auditūrus sūm, *I am going to hear ; expect to hear ; intend to hear*, etc.

auditūrus ērām, *I was going to hear ; expected to hear ; intended to hear*, etc.

This form supplies the lacking subjunctive and infinitive of the future tense, when such forms are needed for precision.

[213] **audiendūs sūm**, *I must be heard ; ought to be heard*, etc.

audiendūs ērām, *I had to be heard ; deserved to be heard*, etc.

[214] Perf. pass. ind. **āmātūs sūm**

Perf. pass. subj. **āmātūs sīm**

“ **ēs**

“ **sīs**

“ **est**

“ **sīt**

amatī sūmūs

amatī sīmūs

“ **estīs**

“ **sītīs**

“ **sunt**

“ **sint**

Plup. pass. ind. **āmātūs ērām**

Plup. pass. subj. **āmātūs essēm**

“ **erās**

“ **essēs**

“ **erāt**

“ **essēt**

amatī erāmūs

amatī essēmūs

“ **erātīs**

“ **essētīs**

“ **erant**

“ **essent**

Fut. pf. pass. ind. **āmātūs erō**

“ **erīs**

“ **erīt**

Perf. pass. inf. **āmātūs essē**

amatī erīmūs

“ **erītīs**

“ **erunt**

Irregular Verb-Forms.

The **v** used to form the perfect stem is sometimes dropped between vowels. See [12] (*c*). 215

The ending of the imperative active second singular is dropped in the verbs **dīco**, **dūco**, **fācio**, thus making **dīc**, **dūc**, **fāc**. 216

Instead of the incomplete tenses of **sūm** the complete tenses are sometimes used to make the perf., plup. and fut. perf. passive, with little or no difference of meaning; *e.g.*, **amatus fui** = **amatus sum**; **amatus fueram** = **amatus eram**, etc. In all these periphrastic conjugations the participle is an adjective limiting the subject of the verb "be," and takes the same gender, number and case. See 255.

[215] An open vowel before **v** absorbs the following vowel after **v** falls; a close vowel does so rarely. Thus **amāvisti** becomes **āmāsti**; **flēvisti** becomes **flēsti**; **nōvēram** becomes **nōram**, etc. But **audīveram** becomes **audiēram**, etc.

A similar shortening in perfects formed with **-s** is rarer, — **scripsisti** for **scripsisti**; **dixe** for **dixisse**, etc.

[216] The same loss of the imperative ending takes place also in the verbs **sūm**, **ēdo**, **fēro**, **vōlo**, but is part of a peculiar irregularity. (See 220.) In old Latin, and in compounds of **facio**, the regular forms are found.

Other irregularities are rarer, and belong generally to the older language or to poetry. A list is given for reference:—

(a) In stems in **-i** the imperf. and fut. ind. are sometimes formed with the signs **ēbā** and **ēb**; regularly so in **eo**, "go." See [227].

(b) An old fut. (or fut. perf.?) formed with the sign **-s** (or **-ss**), a subj. with the sign **-sī** (or **-ssī**), and an infin. with the ending **-sere** (or **-ssere**), are found in old writers.

(c) An old imper. pass. sg. ending **-mīno** (corresponding to the pl. ending **-mīnī**) is also found, and the active ending **-to** seems sometimes to have a passive sense.

(d) For the suffix **-erē** = **-erīs**, see [180].

(e) For the perf. ind. act. ending **-ērē** = **ērunt**, see [189].

(f) For the ending **-undī**, etc., in the gerund, and **-undus**, **-a**, **-um**, in the pres. pass. part., see [183].

- 217** The verbs **sŭm, ědo, fĕro, vŏlo, do, eo, queo, fio**, and their compounds, have special irregularities in the incomplete tenses, chiefly in : —
- 218** (a) Variation of the stem.
- 219** (b) Use of mood-and-tense signs unusual in stems of like form.
- 220** (c) Omission of the initial vowel of the mood-and-tense sign, or of the suffix. This occurs in **sŭm, ědo, fĕro, vŏlo**, which omit the initial vowel of the imperfect subjunctive sign, and the initial vowel of the suffix in the following forms ; viz. : —
- Present indicative, 2d and 3d sg. and 2d plural.
 Present imperative, 2d and 3d sg. and 2d plural.
 Present infinitive.
- 221** **Sŭm** (stem **ěs-**) omits the vowel, uses **ī** as present subjunctive sign, loses initial **e** in certain forms, and retains older endings not found in the usual conjugations.

(g) **Audeo, fido, gaudeo, soleo**, have a passive form in the complete tenses, and are called semi-deponents.

(h) **Morior, orior, potior**, show a variation between long **ī**-stem forms and short **ĭ**-stem forms.

[220] The omission of the **ě** of the imperf. subj. sign **-ĕrĕ** causes it to take the form **-sĕ** in **sum** and **ědo**, and **-lĕ** in **volo**. **Sĕ** was, no doubt, the original form ; **lĕ** arises by assimilation of **-r** to the preceding **-l**. The same change takes place in the pres. infin.

[221] **Sŭm, esse, fui, fŭtŭrŭs.**

PRESENT.				IMPERFECT.		FUTURE.
sŭm	sĭm			ĕrām	essĕm	ĕrŏ
ěs	sĭs	ěs, esto	esse	erās	essēs	erĭs
est	sĭt	esto		erāt	essēt	erĭt
sŭmŭs	sĭmŭs		[-sens]	erāmus	essēmus	erĭmus
estĭs	sĭtĭs	estĕ, estŏtĕ		erātis	essētis	erĭtis
sunt	sint	sunto		erant	essent	erunt

Compounds of **sŭm** are like **sŭm**, except **possŭm**, 222 which contracts in certain forms.

Edo (stem **ĕd-**) omits the vowel (with consequent euphonic change of **d** to **s**), and has present subjunctive sign **ī**. It has also the regular forms. 223

For **sim**, **sīs**, etc., an older form — **siem**, **sies**, etc. — is found. The 2d sg. pres. ind. **ēs** stands for **es-s** (see [12] (b)), and is long in old Latin **ēs**, the result of the loss of the suffix. (See 362.) The pres. part. **-sens** is found only in the compounds, **ab-sens** and **prae-sens**.

The complete tenses are formed from a stem **fu-**, which appears as the simple stem also in **fŭ-tŭrus**. From this stem is formed a pres. subj. **fuam**, etc.; and from another form of it, **fo-**, is formed an imperf. subj. **fōrem**, etc., and an infin. **fōre**. **Fōre** has a future sense, as have also the old inceptive forms **escit**, **escunt** (= **es-sc-it**, **es-sc-unt**). For perfect stem the older language has also **fŭv-**.

[222] **Possŭm**, **possĕ**, **pōtui**.

PRESENT.			IMPERFECT.		FUTURE.
possŭm	possĭm		pōtĕrām	possĕm	pōtĕrō
potĕs	possĭs	possĕ	pōtĕrās	possĕs	poterĭs
potest	possĭt		etc.	possĕt	poterĭt
possŭmus	possĭmus			etc.	poterĭmŭs
potestis	possĭtis				poterĭtis
possunt	possint				poterunt

Possiem, etc., is found for **possim**, etc.; also the uncontracted **pot-essem** for **possem**. **Possum** is for **pot-sum** by assimilation of **t**, which appears in its proper form before a vowel. The imperative and the participle are wanting.

Prosum is like **sum**, but the preposition **prō** keeps its original form, **prōd**, before those forms that begin with a vowel, — **pro-sum**, **prod-ēs**, **prod-est**, **pro-sŭmŭs**, etc.

[223] **Edo**, **ĕdĕre**, **ĕdī**, **ĕsum**. The irregular forms are:—

PRESENT.			IMP. SUBJ.		
—	ĕdĭm		essĕm		
ĕs	ĕdĭs	ĕs, esto	essĕs		PRES. PASS. IND.
est	etc.	esto	essĕt		estŭr
—			etc.		
estĭs		este, estōte			IMPERF. PASS. SUBJ.
—		—			essĕtŭr

Also regular **ĕdo**, **-īs**, **-īt**, etc., like **rego**. See [198].

224 Fěro (stem fěr-) omits the vowel, and retains the original present passive infinitive suffix -rī, usually lost in consonant-stems.

225 Vōlo (stem vōl-) omits the vowel, has present subjunctive sign ī, and varies the stem to **vul**, **vel**, **vil**. Its compounds **nōlo** and **mālo** have the same irregularities, and suffer contraction in many forms.

[224] Fěro, ferre, tūli, lātum.

PRESENT.				IMPERFECT.		FUTURE.
ferō	ferām		INF.	ferēbām	ferrēm	ferām
fers	ferās	fēr, ferto	ferrē	ferēbās	ferrēs	ferēs
fert	etc.	ferto	PART.	etc.	etc.	etc.
ferīmus			ferens			
fertīs		fertě, fertōtě	GER.			
ferunt		ferunto	ferendi			

Ferōr, ferri, lātus.

PRESENT.				IMPERFECT.		FUTURE.
ferōr	ferār			ferēbār	ferrēr	ferār
ferrīs	ferāris	ferrě, fertōr	INF.	ferēbārīs	ferērīs	ferērīs
fertur	etc.	fertōr	ferrī	etc.	etc.	etc.
ferīmur			PART.			
ferīmīnī		ferīmīnī	ferendus			
feruntūr		feruntōr				

For perfect stem fěro uses tūl; for simple stem, lā (older tla). Both are variations of a stem seen also in **tollo**. **Ferimini** (ind. and imper.) retains the vowel, but the 2d pl. pass. was originally a participial formation, not a finite form.

[225] Vōlo, velle, vōlui.

PRESENT.				IMPERFECT.		FUTURE.
vōlō	vēlīm		INF.	vōlēbām	vellēm	vōlām
vīs	vēlīs	(vel, used as a	vellē	volēbās	vellēs	volēs
vult	vēlīt	conjunction)	PART.	etc.	etc.	etc.
vōlūmūs	vēlīmus		vōlens			
vultīs	etc.		GER.			
vōlunt			volendi			

Nōlo, nolle, nōlui.

PRESENT.			IMPERFECT.		FUTURE.	
nōlo	nōlīm		INF.	nōlēbām	nollēm	[nolam]
(nēvīs)	nōlīs	nōlī, nōlīto	nolle	nōlēbās	nollēs	nōlēs
(nēvult)	etc.	nolīto	PART.	etc.	etc.	etc.
nōlūmūs			nōlens			
[nevultis]		nolīte, nolītōtē	GER.			
nōlunt		nolunto	nōlendi			

Do (stem **da-**) omits the vowel of the suffix in the present tense and the vowel of the mood-and-tense sign in the imperfect and future, and consequently has short **ă** throughout, where **a**-stems usually have long **ā**. Most of its compounds lose this **ă**, and thus become consonant-stems.

226

Eo (stem **i-**) varies the stem to **e** before a vowel (except before **e** in the present active participle),

227

Nēvis, nēvult, are old. The imperative (except 3d pl.) is from a stem **noli**.

Mālo, malle, mālui.

PRESENT.			IMPERFECT.		FUTURE.
mālo	mālim		mālēbam	malle	[malam]
māvīs	mālīs		mālēbas	mallēs	mālēs
māvult	etc.	(Imperative	malle	etc.	mālet
mālūmūs		wanting.)	GER.	etc.	etc.
māvultīs			malendi		
mālūnt					

Mavōlo, mavēlim, etc. (uncontracted), are old. The bracketed forms are lacking.

[226] **Do, dārē, dēdī, dātum**. Its inflection is like that of **amo**, except that the final vowel of the stem is everywhere short. (The forms **dās, dā**, are lengthened by a general tendency to lengthen certain syllables. See 360, 361.) Only the form **do** has the suffix vowel. The quantity of the stem-vowel is seen, for example, in **dāmus, dābit, dābitur, dābāmus**, etc. Another form of the same stem, **du-**, gives a subjunctive **duam, duas**, etc.; or **duim, duis**, etc.

Do remains unchanged in **circumdo, pessumdo, satisko** and **venumdo**. These are not full compounds, and are often written separately. In the future, the original form (*e.g.*, **red-dībo**, etc.) is sometimes found in the consonant-stem compounds.

[227] **Eo, ire, ivi, itum**.

PRESENT.			IMPERFECT.		FUTURE.
eo	eam		Inf.	ībām	ībō
īs	eās	ī, īto	īre	ībās	ībīs
īt	eāt	īto	PART.	etc.	etc.
īmus	eāmus		iens, euntis, etc.		
ītis	eātis	ītē, itōtē	GER.		
eunt	eant	eunto	iendi, etc.		

and forms the imperfect and future indicative with the signs **ěbā** and **ěb**, like **a-** and **e-**stems.

228 **Qveo** (stem **qvi-**) and its compound **neqveo** are like **eo**.

229 **Fio** (stem **fī-**) keeps the vowel **ě** unabsorbed in the present infinitive and imperfect subjunctive. In all other forms the stem-vowel is long, even before a vowel. The present infinitive is passive in form.

Impersonal and Defective Verbs.

230 Impersonal verbs are such as do not take a personal subject. They are found only in the third person singular, and comprise: —

231 (a) Verbs referring to the state of the weather.

232 (b) A few verbs expressing feeling or emotion, the object of which denotes the person who experiences the feeling.

233 (c) Verbs which take a clause or an infinitive as subject. Many of these are also used personally.

[228] **Qveo, qvīre, qvīvī, qvītum**. So **neqveo, neqvīre**, etc. Only a few forms are in use.

[229] **Fio, fīērī**, [factus].

PRESENT.			IMPERFECT.		FUTURE.
fīo	fīām		fīēbām	fīērēm	fīām
fīs	fīās	fī	fīēbās	fīērēs	fīēs
fīt	etc.		etc.	etc.	etc.
fīmus			INFINITIVE.		
			fīērī		
fītis		fītē			
fīunt					

Fio is passive in meaning, and is used as the passive of **fācio**, which supplies the lacking participle and the complete tenses. In old Latin **fīērēm**, etc., and **fīērī** occur.

[231] *E.g., pluit, it rains; ningit, it snows, etc.*

[232] *E.g., pudet me, (it shames me, i.e.) I am ashamed, etc.*

[233] *E.g., mihi ire licet, (to go is permitted to me) I am permitted to go, etc.*

(d) Many intransitive verbs, which may be used impersonally in the passive. 234

Some verbs are defective in Latin. Of these only **ōdi** and **mēmīni** need special mention. They lack the incomplete tenses, and the complete tenses have the time of the incomplete. 235

[234] *E.g., pugnātur, (it is fought) there is fighting going on; invidētur mihi, (it is envied toward me) I am envied; ĭtur, (it is gone) people go, etc.*

[235] The forms of the most usual defective verbs are added for reference:—

1. **ājo, aīs, aīt, ājunt.** Imperf. **ājēbam** or **āibam**, etc.; subj. **ājās, ājāt**; part. **ājens**.

2. Imperat. **āve, āvēto, āvēte**; inf. **āvēre**.

3. **fātur.** Imperat. **fāre**; fut. **fābor, fābitur**; inf. **fārī**; sup. **fātu**; part. **fans, fandus, fātus**.

4. **inqvam, inqvīs, inqvīt; inqvīmus, inqvīunt.** Imperat. **inqve, inqvīto, inqvīte**; imperf. **inqviēbat**; fut. **inqviēs, inqvīēt**; perf. **inqvii, inqvisti, inqvīt**.

5. **mēmīni**; the complete tenses, and an imperat. **memento, memen-tōte**. In compounds the incomplete tenses are found; *e.g., re-mīn-isc-or*, etc.

6. **ōdi**; only the complete tenses and part. **ōsūrus**.

7. Subj. **ōvet, ōvāret**; part. **ōvans, ōvātus**; ger. **ōvandi**.

8. Imperat. **salve, salvēte**; inf. **salvēre**; fut. **salvēbis**.

Many verbs lack the forms from the simple stem or those from the perfect stem, and some lack both. Impersonal verbs lack all forms except the third personal singular; and intransitive verbs, except in the use mentioned above (234), of course lack the passive voice altogether. Such are not usually called defective, however, but the name is limited to those given here.

PART III. — WORD-FORMATION.

Roots and Stems.

- 236** | A root is a simple sound, or combination of sounds, used in language to convey an idea without modification.
- 237** | Roots are sometimes used in Latin as stems, and the suffixes of inflection joined to them directly. Usually, however, stems are formed from roots by vowel-change, or by the addition of a vowel, **a, e, i, o, u**; sometimes by both.
- 238** | Stems formed from roots in either of these three
-

[237] Many verbs with consonant-stems, and a few with stems in **-a, -e** or **-i**, use an unmodified root as a stem. Most verbs with vowel-stems, however, use a primitive stem, or, far more often, a derivative stem as the verb-stem. The **a, e** or **i** added to form the present stem is, of course, no part of the verb-stem, but only a modification used in the incomplete tenses. The final **a, e** or **i** of the present stem belongs to the verb-stem only when it shows itself also in the perfect stem and in the simple stem.

Very few nouns and no adjectives have roots as stems.

[238] Final vowels of stems (except **u** sometimes) are dropped before suffixes beginning with a vowel, and are often weakened (and sometimes dropped) before those that begin with a consonant. Before some of the latter, however, the vowel is lengthened, perhaps by the absorption of an initial vowel, which generally appears when they are appended to consonant-stems. Compare the usage in the case of the verb-suffixes, 170-190.

Initial **t** of a suffix suffers the euphonic change to **s** after certain letters, as in the supine and participles of the verb.

ways are called primitive stems. From these, derivative stems are formed by adding suffixes of derivation. Both primitive and derivative stems, by the addition of suffixes of inflection, become words of the language, fitted for use in sentences.

Formation of Nouns.

Nouns are formed from other nouns with a variety of suffixes and meanings. 239

Nouns formed from adjectives express the quality or condition denoted by the adjective. 240

[239] The most common suffixes are these:—

- ātu** (= Eng. *-ship*), name of office or condition of the primitive.
- ēto**, -**ārio**, name of place where the primitive is found.
- tūt** (= Eng. *-hood*), name of condition or quality of the primitive.
- io**, name of condition or quality of the primitive.
- lo**, -**la** (= Eng. *-let*), diminutive nouns.
- cūlo**, -**cūla** (= Eng. *-let*), diminutive nouns.

Illustrations are:—

consul-ātu , <i>consulship</i> ;	from consul , <i>a consul</i> .
qverc-ētum , <i>oak forest</i> ;	“ qvercus , <i>an oak</i> .
vir-tus , <i>manhood</i> ;	“ vir , <i>a man</i> .
minister-ium , <i>service</i> ;	“ minister , <i>a servant</i> .
vicū-lus , <i>hamlet</i> ;	“ vicus , <i>a village</i> .
casū-la , <i>cottage</i> ;	“ casa , <i>a house</i> .
flos-cūlus , <i>floweret</i> ;	“ flos , <i>a flower</i> .
securi-cūla , <i>hatchet</i> ;	“ securis , <i>an axe</i> .

[240] The more usual suffixes are -**tāt**, -**tūdīn**, -**ia**, -**tia** (= Eng. *-ness*).

Illustrations are:—

superb-ia , <i>pride</i> ;	from superbus , <i>proud</i> .
solī-tūdo , <i>loneliness</i> ;	“ solus , <i>alone</i> .
boni-tas , <i>goodness</i> ;	“ bonus , <i>good</i> .
justi-tia , <i>justice</i> ;	“ justus , <i>just</i> .

- 241** Nouns from verbs denote the *doer*, *means*, *result*, *place*, *instrument*, etc., of the action, or the action itself.

Formation of Adjectives.

- 242** Adjectives formed from nouns are usually “possessive” adjectives, expressing “possessed of,” “full of,”

[241] The most usual suffixes are : —

- tōr** (**sōr**), -**trīc** (= Eng. -*er*, -*ster*), name of the doer.
 -**tu** (-**su**), -**tūra** (-**sūra**), -**tiōn** (-**siōn**), -**io**, -**iōn**, -**ōr**, -**mīn**,
 -**mento**, -**cūlo**, name of the act, means, result.
 -**būlo**, -**tro**, name of the place, means, instrument.

Illustrations are : —

- | | |
|--|--|
| audi-tor , <i>hearer</i> ; | from audi-re , <i>to hear</i> . |
| lu-sor , <i>player</i> ; | “ lud-ere , <i>to play</i> . |
| al-trix , <i>nourisher</i> ; | “ al-ere , <i>to nourish</i> . |
| ic-tus , <i>blow</i> ; | “ ic-ere , <i>to strike</i> . |
| arā-tio , <i>ploughing</i> ; | “ ara-re , <i>to plough</i> . |
| effug-ium , <i>escape</i> ; | “ effug-ere , <i>to escape</i> . |
| suspici-io , <i>suspicion</i> ; | “ suspici-ere , <i>to suspect</i> . |
| am-or , <i>love</i> ; | “ ama-re , <i>to love</i> . |
| certā-men , <i>fight</i> ; | “ certa-re , <i>to fight</i> . |
| vesti-mentum , <i>clothing</i> ; | “ vesti-re , <i>to clothe</i> . |
| specta-cūlum , <i>spectacle</i> ; | “ specta-re , <i>to view</i> . |
| sta-būlum , <i>stall</i> ; | “ sta-re , <i>to stand</i> . |
| ara-trum , <i>plough</i> ; | “ ara-re , <i>to plough</i> . |

[242] Adjectives thus formed correspond to English derivative adjectives in -*ish*, -*y*, -*ed*, -*ful*, -*en*, etc. The suffixes used to form them are very numerous; the most common are -**āto**, -**do**, -**no**, -**āno**, -**ino**, -**āli**, -**īli**, -**āri**, -**ārio**, -**āti**, -**ensi**, -**ōso**, -**lento**, -**co**, -**io**, -**eo**, -**aceo**.

Illustrations are : —

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| aur-atus , <i>gilded</i> ; | from aurum , <i>gold</i> . |
| luctu-ōsus , <i>sorrowful</i> ; | “ luctus , <i>sorrow</i> . |
| Rom-ānus , <i>Roman</i> ; | “ Roma , <i>Rome</i> . |
| aur-eus , <i>golden</i> ; | “ aurum , <i>gold</i> . |
| ebur-nus , <i>ivory</i> ; | “ ebur , <i>ivory</i> . |
| mort-ālis , <i>mortal</i> ; | “ mors , <i>death</i> . |
| etc. | etc. |

“furnished with,” “made of,” “characterized by,” “belonging to,” and the like.

Adjectives from other adjectives are derivative numerals, comparatives and superlatives, and diminutives. 243

Adjectives from verbs are the regular participles, adjectives with the force of participles (usually active), and adjectives denoting capability (usually passive). 244

Formation of Verbs.

A few verbs are formed from noun- or adjective-stems by using the theme of the noun as a verb-stem. 245

[243] For the ordinal and distributive numerals, with their suffixes, see [118]; and for the comparative and superlative formations, see 119 ff. Diminutive adjectives have the suffixes **-lo** and **-cũlo**, like diminutive nouns.

E.g., albũlus, whitish, from albus, white.

forticũlus, boldish, somewhat bold, from fortis, bold.

[244] For the regular participles and their endings see 183-187. Adjectives with the general force of participles, but expressing a habit rather than a single act, are formed with the suffixes **-uo**, **-ivo**, **-tivo**, **-do**, **-bundo**, **-cundo**, **-aci**, etc. Illustrations are:—

contig-uus, touching, adjacent; from **conting-ere**, to touch.

cad-ivus, falling, fleeting; “ **cad-ere**, to fall.

nomina-tivus, nominative; “ **nomina-re**, to name.

erra-bundus, wandering, vagrant; “ **erra-re**, to wander.

Adjectives denoting capability are formed with the suffixes **-li**, **-bili**, **-tili** (**-sili**). Illustrations are:—

frag-ilis, breakable, frail; from **frang-ere**, to break.

cred-ibilis, credible; “ **cred-ere**, to believe.

fer-tilis, fertile, capable of producing; “ **fer-re**, to produce.

[245] Thus, from **flor** (theme of **flos**, a flower) we have **flor-ēre**, to flower; from **arbōr** (theme of **arbor**, a tree), **arbor-esc-ere**, to become a tree; from **dulc** (theme of **dulcis**, sweet), **dulc-esc-ere**, to grow sweet, etc. That the *e* of the present stem does not belong to the verb-stem, but is a formative addition, is shown by the form of the perfect stem, when one exists (*e.g.*, **flor-ui**). But most of these verbs have only the incomplete tenses.

- In such verbs the present stem is formed by adding **-e**, or by adding **-esc**. In the former case the verb means “to be [so-and-so]”; in the latter, “to become [so-and-so].”
- 246** More often verb-stems are formed from noun- or adjective-stems by adding **-a** or **-i** to the theme. Verbs thus formed usually mean “to make [so-and-so]”; less often, “to be [so-and-so].”
- 247** Verbs formed from verbs are frequentatives, intensives, or desideratives.

[246] Thus, from **bellum**, *war*, **bellare**, *to war*; from **aeqvus**, *level*, **aeqvare**, *to level*; from **miles**, *soldier*, **militare**, *to be a soldier*; from **tenuis**, *thin*, **tenuare**, *to make thin*; from **insanus**, *mad*, **insanire**, *to be mad*; from **finis**, *end*, **finire**, *to end*, etc.

From stems in **u**, **a**-stem verbs are formed by adding **a** to the stem, not the theme; e.g., **aestu-are** from **aestu-s**. But **i** is added to the theme in **u**-stems, as in others. See [238].

[247] Frequentatives denote a frequent or emphatic action. They are formed with the suffix **-ta**. Many verbs formed in this way, however, have lost the frequentative force. Illustrations are:—

adven-tare , <i>to come often</i> ;	from adven-ire , <i>to come</i> .
rog-itare , <i>to ask eagerly</i> ;	“ rog-are , <i>to ask</i> .
dic-tare , <i>to say frequently</i> ;	“ dic-ere , <i>to say</i> .
dict-itare , <i>to say frequently</i> ;	“ dict-are , <i>to say</i> .

Intensives denote an eager or earnest action. They are few in number, and are formed with the suffix **-ess** or **-essi**, the latter being used in the complete tenses and simple stem forms. Illustrations are:—

fac-ess-ere , <i>to do eagerly</i> ;	from fac-ere , <i>to do</i> .
cap-ess-ere , <i>to take eagerly, to seize</i> ;	“ cap-ere , <i>to take</i> .

Desideratives denote the desire to do an action. They are few in number, and are formed with the suffix **-tūri** (**-sūri**). Illustrations are:—

cena-turire , <i>to wish to dine</i> ;	from cena-re , <i>to dine</i> .
emp-turire , <i>to wish to buy</i> ;	“ em-ere , <i>to buy</i> .

Desideratives seem to be formed from the future active participle by the addition of **i**, as stated in 246, the **u** being shortened, probably by the change of accent.

Formation of Adverbs.

Many adverbs are case-forms of nouns and adjectives, often with obsolete endings. The locative, accusative and ablative are most frequent. 248

Adverbs of manner are formed from adjectives and verbs; adverbs of source from nouns; numeral adverbs from numeral adjectives. 249

Formation of Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

The interjections proper are primitive sounds, but various nouns are used interjectionally in the nominative, accusative or vocative. So also are curt phrases. 250

The prepositions and conjunctions are in some cases case-forms or phrases, but most of them are not easily subjected to grammatical analysis, and may conveniently be regarded as primitive words. 251

[249] The most usual suffixes for adverbs of manner from adjectives are **-ē** and **-tēr**; from verbs, **-tim** (**-sim**). Adverbs of source are formed from nouns with the suffix **-tūs**. Illustrations are: —

cert-e , <i>surely</i> ;	from certus , <i>sure</i> .
firmī-ter , <i>firmly</i> ;	“ firmus , <i>firm</i> .
cau-tim , <i>cautiously</i> ;	“ cav-ēre , <i>to be cautious</i> .
fundī-tus , <i>from the bottom</i> ;	“ fundus , <i>bottom</i> .

Adverbs of source are formed from adjectives also, and even from prepositions. For the numeral adverbs (ending **-iens** or **-iēs**) see [118].

[251] The manner of formation of prepositions and conjunctions is a subject for comparative grammar, and cannot be fully treated in an elementary book.

Composition.

- 252** Words are also formed by composition, *i.e.*, by combining two or more stems into one. The suffixes of inflection or derivation are then added to the last stem.

[252] The first stem usually modifies the second with the force of an adverb, an adjective, an oblique case, or a direct object; *e.g.*, —

in-īqvus, *unfair* (**in**, *aequus*).

centi-manus, *hundred-handed* (**centum**, *manus*).

capri-cornus, *goat-horned* (**caper**, *cornu*).

partī-ceps, *partaker* (**pars**, *capere*).

sanguī-sūga, *bloodsucker, leech* (**sanguis**, *sugo*).

etc.

etc.

A few words are often written as compounds, though not really such; *e.g.*, **res publica**, *commonwealth*; **jus jurandum**, *oath*; **legis lator**, *legislator*; etc. The custom of writing them as single words has caused them to be looked on as compounds, and they are sometimes called "spurious compounds." Compare in English *instead* (*i.e. in stead*), *perchance*, *perhaps*, etc., where two words have grown into one.

PART IV. — SYNTAX.

Person, Number, Voice, Concord.

The modifications of person, number and voice have the same force in Latin as in English. Special rules are needed only for concord, for the use of the cases, tenses and moods, and for the non-finite verb-forms. 253

The rules of concord are: —

(a) The appositive or predicate noun agrees in case with the noun it limits. 254

(b) The adjective agrees in gender, number and case with the noun it limits. 255

[253] Except the reflexive use of the passive and the deponent verbs. See 154.

[254] The appositive and predicate noun are usually required by the sense to agree in number, and they agree in gender also, when possible.

Most nouns lack a separate form for the locative and vocative. Such nouns, when used as appositives to those cases, are put in other constructions to express the same idea; with the locative, in the ablative (or ablative with a preposition); with the vocative, in the nominative.

[255] An adjective may limit two or more nouns. In this case the predicate adjective is generally plural and masculine if the nouns denote persons; neuter, if they denote things. The attributive adjective, limiting two or more nouns, generally agrees with the nearest.

Two or more ordinal numerals may stand in the singular with a plural noun; e.g., **prima et quarta legiones**, *the first and fourth legions*.

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- | | |
|-----|--|
| 256 | (c) Pronouns agree with their antecedents in <i>gender, number</i> and <i>person</i> . |
| 257 | (d) The finite verb agrees with its subject in <i>number</i> and <i>person</i> . |
-

The participles used to make the “periphrastic” verb-forms sometimes agree with an appositive or predicate noun rather than the subject, when it denotes the same thing.

The locative case is limited by no adjectives but possessives (except *die* in old Latin). A nominative used in direct address is in a few cases limited by an adjective in the vocative form. Nominatives so used are usually called vocatives. See [261].

A predicate noun or adjective after an infinitive without an expressed subject often agrees not with the omitted subject but with the same word expressed in the sentence in some other case; *e.g.*, **cupio esse bonus**, *I wish to be good*; **mihi licet esse bono**, *I am permitted to be good*. (In the former of these sentences **bonus** agrees with **ego**, expressed in the ending of the verb **cupio**; in the latter, **bono** agrees with **mihi**.) **Vobis necesse est fortibus viris esse**, *you must be brave men*.

[256] The rule applies, of course, only to substantive pronouns, and even these can show person only when they are used as subjects of finite verbs, which show by their ending the person of the subject. All adjective pronouns agree as adjectives. A few cases occur in poetry of an agreement of the relative pronoun in *case* also (attraction); and in a few instances the antecedent takes the case of the relative. A pronoun sometimes agrees with an appositive or predicate-noun of its antecedent. With more than one antecedent, pronouns follow the usage of adjectives in gender and number; that of verbs in person. See [255] and [257].

[257] With two or more subjects taken conjointly, the verb is plural. If the subjects differ in person the verb takes the first person in preference to the second, the second in preference to the third. But in such cases the verb often agrees with the nearest subject, especially if it precedes the subjects.

Occasional violations of the rules of agreement are found, the most common being an agreement according to sense rather than form. Thus, a feminine or neuter collective noun may take a plural adjective or verb referring to the implied individuals; two subjects, taken together, may take a singular verb if they express a single idea, etc.

Use of the Cases.

The NOMINATIVE is used —

(a) As subject of a finite verb. 258

(b) In exclamations. 259

(c) To denote the person or thing spoken to. 260

The VOCATIVE is used —

(a) To denote the person or thing spoken to. 261

The ACCUSATIVE is used —

(a) As the direct object of an action. 262

[258] The use of the *subject-nominative* is the same as in English.

[259] The *exclamatory nominative* may be considered the subject of a verb implied in the connection. It is usually accompanied by the interjection *en* or *ecce*. *en Priamus! Lo, (here is) Priam! En ego, vester Ascanius! Lo, (it is) I, your Ascanius! ecce tuae litterae! Now your letter (comes)!*

[260] The *nominative of direct address* is the regular usage in the plural number, where no vocative is found, but is rare in the singular, when a separate vocative form exists. It is usual to call nominatives vocatives when used in this way, if no separate vocative form is found. *audi tu, populus Albanus, hear, thou Alban nation. proice tela, sangvis meus, cast away thy weapons, my son.*

[261] *faciam, Laeli, I will do so, Lælius.* The vocative is the simple stem without a case-suffix. A vocative form is found in the singular in *a*-stems, masculine *o*-stems and semivowel-stems. In others the nominative is used as a vocative, and is usually called a vocative when so used. An adjective limiting such a nominative usually takes the vocative form, if it has a separate form for that case, but sometimes the nominative; *e.g., sangvis meus*, above [260].

A form *macte* is called a vocative by some grammarians, an adverb by others. It is used as a simple exclamation, or with the imperative forms *esto, este*, as an exclamation of approval. *macte! good! macte virtute esto! bravo!*

[262] *omnem equitatum mittit, he sends all the cavalry.*

A special kind of direct object is the *cognate accusative*, which repeats the meaning of the verb in the form of a noun; *e.g., vitam tutam vivere,*

- | | |
|------------|----------------------------------|
| 263 | (b) As subject of an infinitive. |
| 264 | (c) In exclamations. |

to live a safe life; *servitutum servire*, to slave slavery (i.e., undergo). This form of direct object follows verbs which are otherwise intransitive.

Many verbs are transitive in Latin, while English verbs of like meaning are intransitive. In such cases a preposition is inserted in English; e.g., *arma cano*, I sing of arms; *petit hostem*, he aims at the foe, etc. Other verbs, properly intransitive, sometimes take a direct object in poetical or figurative language; e.g., *ardebat Alexin*, he was hot for (i.e., loved) Alexis; *redolere antiquitatem*, to smell of antiquity; *saltare Cyclopa*, to dance the Cyclops; *resonant Amaryllida silvae*, the groves echo (the name of) Amaryllis. Many verbs also are made transitive by being compounded with prepositions.

In a few cases the action implied in a noun or adjective governs a direct object. The infinitives, participles and gerund, of course, retaining their verbal power, govern the same case as their verbs.

Factitive verbs (i.e., verbs meaning make, appoint, choose, name, etc.) take two objects, as in English, denoting the same person or thing; e.g., *populus Romanus Ciceronem creavit consulem*, the Roman nation chose Cicero consul.

Doceo (and compounds), *celo* and a few verbs of demanding and questioning, sometimes take two direct objects, — one denoting the person, the other the thing; e.g., *non te celavi sermonem*, I have not concealed from you the remark; *te hoc rogo*, I ask you this; *Caesar Haeduos frumentum flagitare*, Caesar kept demanding corn from the Haeduans. In the passive voice of these verbs the accusative of the person becomes the subject, and that of the thing remains. In many cases the accusative of the thing seems to be an accusative of specification, or to approach that meaning, and may be a development from it. See [267].

[263] This use is a development of (a), the subject of the infinitive being originally the object of the leading verb. It has been extended, however, to all uses of the infinitive except the historical infinitive, which is a finite verb-form in meaning. See [342]. *cum suos interfici viderent*, when they saw that their men were being killed; *necesse est legem haberi*, it is needful that the law be kept; *fama erat hostem advenire*, there was a rumor that the foe was coming.

[264] The exclamatory accusative is possibly the object of a verb implied in the connection, but in most cases none need be supplied in translation. An interjection often accompanies it. *heu, me miserum!*

(d) To denote the place to which motion proceeds.	265
(e) To denote extent of time or space.	266
(f) With verbs or adjectives to define their application.	267
(g) With many prepositions.	268

Alas, unhappy me! hanc audaciam, the impudence! In old Latin the accusatives **eum, eam, illum, illam**, etc., are combined with the preceding **en** or **ecce** to **eccum, eccam, eccillam**, etc.

[265] *Accusative of limit.* This use is limited, in prose, to names of towns and small islands, and **domum, domos, foras, rus**. **Hennam profecti sunt**, *they went to Henna*; **ego rus ibo**, *I shall go to the country*. Other words require a preposition, except a few phrases with **eo**, "to go," or **do**, "to give," in which the freer use of early Latin is retained; e.g., **pessum ire**, *to go to ruin*; **pessum dare**, [*to send to ruin, i.e.*] *to ruin*; **infittias ire, exsequias ire, venum ire, venum dare**. Here belongs also the use of the accusative case of the supine. See 351.

[266] *Accusative of extent.* **paucos dies moratus**, *having waited a few days*; **millia passuum tria ab eorum castris castra ponit**, *he pitches a camp three miles from their camp*. Extent of time or space is sometimes expressed by the ablative. See 302.

[267] *Accusative of specification.* This use is rare in prose, the ablative being the usual construction. The accusative is found, however, in neuter pronouns; **id, quid**, etc., in **nihil**; in neuter adjectives, **pauca, multum**, etc.; and in a few idiomatic phrases. It is usually best translated by an adverb or an adverbial phrase; e.g., **quid? why? maximam partem**, *chiefly*; **id temporis**, *then*; **istuc aetatis**, *at your age*, etc. In the phrases **id genus**, *of that sort*; **virile secus**, *of the male sex*, and the like, this accusative seems to qualify a noun, and is nearly equal in force to a genitive or ablative of description. Under this head come many so-called adverbs, **multum, plus, minus**, etc.

With **cingor**, *I bind on (myself)*, and other passive forms used reflexively, an accusative is found, which is usually referred to this head. It is better treated, however, as direct object, since the verb is not properly passive. In poetical language many passive participles retain a direct object which may be explained in the same way.

[268] The accusative and ablative cases follow prepositions in Latin. A list of those that take the ablative is given in 308; all others take the accusative. Prepositions compounded with verbs sometimes retain their power of

The DATIVE is used —

269

(a) As indirect object of an action or feeling.

governing an accusative. If the verb is transitive, it will then take two accusatives, — one a direct object, the other governed by the preposition. This use is rare, except with **trans.** **populos adit**, *he goes to* (i.e., *visits*) *the tribes*; **milites flumen transportabat**, *he was taking his troops over the river*.

Pridie, *the day before*; **postridie**, *the day after*; and the phrase **ante diem**, used in dates, are followed by an accusative, like prepositions. The construction seems to be elliptical.

The adjectives **propior**, **proximus**, and the corresponding adverbs **propius**, **proxime**, are followed by an accusative like their positive **prope**, which is both adverb and preposition. (Compare the similar prepositional use of *nearer*, *nearest*, in English.)

[269] The *dative of indirect object* denotes the person or thing *to* or *for* which, or *for whose advantage* anything is done or exists. Various prepositions are used to express the idea in English, *to* and *for* most often. Sometimes the English indirect objective will render it. **Himilconi respondit**, *he answered Himilco*; **mihi licet adire**, *I am allowed to come near* (*it is allowed to me*); **hostibus terrorem augere**, *to increase the fright of the enemy* (*increase fright for*); **pugnare hostibus**, *to fight with* (or *against*) *the foe*.

Sometimes, in poetry, the dative of the indirect object is found with verbs of motion, where a phrase expressing the *place to which* would be used in prose; e.g., **it clamor caelo**, *the outcry goes to the sky*. This use arises from a poetical notion or conception, the rising of the shout being thought of not simply as going to the sky, but as affecting or having influence on the sky. So occasionally other verbs, the action being conceived of as done *to* the person or thing, though another construction would be used in prose; e.g., **lateri abdidit ensem**, *buried the sword in his side*. So especially verbs meaning “*take away*.”

Many verbs are intransitive in Latin, though verbs of like meaning are transitive in English, and the indirect object with such becomes a direct object in translation. The most common are verbs meaning *help*, *please*, *trust*, *serve*, and the contrary; also *spare*, *pardon*, *envy*, *command*, *persuade*, and the like. If pains is taken to translate them by intransitive expressions, the dative will be seen to have its proper force. **non Herculi nocere voluit**, *she did not wish to do harm to Hercules* (= *injure*). **mundus deo paret**, *the world is subject to* (*obeys*) *a god*. Transitive verbs with the meanings given above govern an accusative, but may take a dative also, if

(b) To denote the possessor or apparent agent.	270
(c) With adjectives, to denote that to which the quality or feeling is directed.	271
(d) To denote purpose or end.	272

the meaning permits; and most of these verbs may take an accusative of the thing, especially a neuter pronoun, along with the dative of the person. **Hoc tibi impero**, *I give you this command (command this to you)*. In the case of some of these verbs, usage is unsettled, and they take either a direct or an indirect object, with little or no difference of meaning.

The same remarks apply also to many verbs compounded with the prepositions **ad**, **ante**, **con**, **in**, **inter**, **ob**, **post**, **prae**, **pro**, **sub**, **super**, which take a dative, and if transitive an accusative also.

[270] The *dative of possessor* is simply an indirect object, denoting the person for whom, or for whose advantage or disadvantage something exists. It needs mention only on account of peculiarity of translation. **Gallis haec consuetudo est**, *the Gauls have this custom* (lit., *this custom exists for the Gauls*). The same is true of the *dative of apparent agent*, so named because translated “*by*.” It is found regularly with the present passive participle (rarely with the perfect passive participle or a verbal adjective in **-bilis**), and denotes the person who has the work to do. **multa mihi facienda sunt**, *much must be done by me, I have much to do* (lit., *the doing-of-much exists for me*). In poetry we sometimes find a dative of the real agent, or one which approaches that meaning.

[271] The *dative with adjectives* is also an indirect object, and denotes that toward which the implied feeling is exercised, or for which the implied quality exists. The adjectives most often limited by a dative are those kindred in meaning to the verbs that govern a dative, and those which mean *like*, *ready*, *friendly*, *easy*, *fit*, etc. **paucis carior fides quam pecunia fuit**, *to a few, truth was dearer than money*; **hoc luctuosum est parentibus**, *this is sad for parents*. **idem**, *same*, sometimes takes a dative (like adjectives of likeness).

In a few cases, a noun or adverb, derived from a verb or adjective which governs a dative, takes an indirect object like its primitive. **convenienter naturae**, *in agreement with nature*. Also, rarely, a dative is found with interjections. **vae victis!** *woe to the vanquished!* **vae mihi!** *ah me!*

[272] The *dative of purpose* is most frequent with the verb “*be*.” It is translated as a predicate-noun or an appositive with “*as*,” less often by “*for*.” **impedimento id fuit**, *this was a hindrance (served as a hindrance)*;

The LOCATIVE is used —

273

(a) To denote the place of an action.

274

(b) To denote price or value.

virtus non datur dono, *virtue is not given as a present*; **eqvitatū Caesarī auxilio miserant**, *they had sent cavalry as a help to Caesar*. A second dative of the person to whom the action is of interest is often added, as in the last example. This use of the dative to express purpose is not common, except in the case of a few words. A few have become equivalent to adjectives, — **frugī bonae** = *honest*, **usui** = *useful*, **cordi** = *pleasing*, etc. In **operae est**, *it is worth while*, it is not clear whether **operae** is dative or genitive. **operae pretium est** also occurs, and the shorter expression may be derived from the latter.

On the border between the dative of indirect object and the dative of purpose stands its occurrence to denote the *use* to which a thing is put; e.g., **domicilio locum delegerunt**, *they chose a place for a home*; **receptui signum**, *the "retreat-call," signal for retreat*; **esui olivae**, *eating-olives*, etc. This use of the dative is most common with the gerundive, in giving the duties of an officer or committee, and similar expressions; e.g., **decemviri legibus scribendis**, *a committee of ten to compile the laws*. In such cases it seems to limit a noun, but the construction is probably elliptical.

[273] A separate form for the locative is found in Latin only in the singular of some names of towns and islands, and a few other words, **domi**, **humi**, **ruri** being the most frequent. (In other words, and in the plural, the ablative or a preposition is used to express "place where.") **cogitandum tibi erat Romaene et domi tuae, an Mitylenis aut Rhodi malle vivere**, *you had to consider whether you preferred to live at Rome and at your own home, or at Mitylenæ or Rhodes*. A locative **animi** occurs with verbs and adjectives of *feeling*; e.g., **aeger animi**, *sick at heart*.

In old Latin a locative **die** is found denoting the "time when"; e.g., **qvinti die**, *on the fifth day*; **die crastini**, *to-morrow*, etc.

Several adverbs of place or time are locatives; e.g., **hic**, *here*; **illic**, *there*; **postridie** (= **posterī die**), *on the following day*; **pridie**, *on the day before*; **qvotidie**, *daily*, etc.

In the case of plural names of towns, it is a matter of indifference whether the case used to denote place be called ablative or locative. The form is the same, and the use of the singular shows that either case may be used in this sense.

[274] A definite amount named as the price is expressed by the ablative. The locative is found in indefinite expressions of price or value; e.g.,

The genitive was originally the case of the <i>source</i> or (consequently) the <i>cause</i> . This idea can be seen in some of its uses; in others the idea of possession, developed from that of source, is more prominent.	275
The GENITIVE is used (as the case of <i>source</i> or <i>cause</i>)—	
(a) To denote the crime	276
1. With verbs of <i>judicial action</i> .	277
2. With adjectives of <i>guilt</i> or <i>innocence</i> .	278
(b) To denote the person or thing that excites the feeling	279
1. With some verbs of <i>reminding</i> , <i>remembering</i> , <i>forgetting</i> , <i>pitying</i> .	280
2. With <i>miseret</i> , <i>paenitet</i> , <i>piget</i> , <i>pudet</i> , <i>taedet</i> .	281
3. With <i>adjectives</i> of like meaning.	282

magni aestimare, to value highly; *flocci non faciunt*, they don't care a straw for —; *est mihi tanti*, it is worth my while; *aequi boni facere*, to take in good part, etc. In *homo nihili*, a worthless fellow, and the like, the locative seems to limit a noun, but the expression is perhaps elliptical.

The locative was not clear to the Romans themselves, and its similarity of form caused it to be confused, in the singular, with the genitive, and in a few cases genuine genitives were used with the force of locatives. Thus, *pluris* and *minoris* occur a few times to express value; a few other genitives occur once each. *mentis*, in mind, is found twice; it seems to have been formed after the analogy of *animi*.

[277] *i.e.*, verbs of *accusing*, *condemning*, *acquitting*, etc. *ambitus accusare*, to accuse of bribery.

[278] *insons culpa*, innocent of fault; *reus avaritiae*, charged with avarice.

[280] *admonebat eum egestatis*, he reminded him of his poverty; *veteris proverbii memini*, I remember an old saw.

[281] *eum libidinis infamiaeque neque pudet neque taedet*, he is neither ashamed of his licentiousness and ill-repute nor sick of them. With *pudet* the person toward whom the sense of shame is felt is occasionally treated as the exciting object.

One or two other verbs of like meaning occasionally occur with a genitive, — *vercor*, to feel awe; *fastidio*, to feel disgust.

[282] *gloriae memor*, mindful of glory; *lassus militiae*, sick of warfare.

- | | |
|-----|--|
| 283 | (c) To denote the whole, of which the word it limits denotes a part. |
| 284 | (d) To describe anything by denoting its qualities or its material. |

[283] *Partitive genitive.* It may limit nouns, adjectives or adverbs, if they express a part. **pars militum**, *part of the soldiers*; **ubinam genitum sumus?** *where in the world are we? (in what place among nations?)* **omnium fluminum maximum**, *the largest of all rivers*; **genus eorum unum**, *one class of them*. Here belongs the genitive in various idiomatic phrases; e.g., **id temporis**, *at that [point of] time*; **quid novi?** *what news?* **id loci**, *that spot*, etc. As partitive genitives the personal pronoun forms **nostrum**, **vestrum** are used, not **nostri**, **vestri**. **ejus** is a partitive genitive in the phrase **quod ejus**, = “as far as” (lit. *whatever of it*). **quod ejus possis**, *as far as you can*. In older Latin, and in colloquial style, we find phrases like **scelus viri**, *a villain*; **quid hominis?** *what sort of a fellow?* **monstrum hominis**, *a monster*, etc., which come under the head of partitives, as do also the phrases **compendi facere**, *to save*; **lucri facere**, *to gain*, and the like.

[284] *Descriptive genitive.* **res magni laboris**, *a task of great toil (very toilsome)*; **murus pedum sedecim**, *a sixteen foot wall*. This genitive, when denoting a quality of the word it limits, regularly has an adjective with it, as in the examples given. (**bidui**, **tridui**, etc., have an adjective compounded with them.)

The descriptive genitive, when used to denote material, does not require a limiting adjective. This use is rare (an adjective is generally used to denote material), and in many cases seems to approach the idea of a partitive genitive. Examples are: **acervus frumenti**, *a heap of grain*; **talentum auri**, *a talent of gold*.

Other constructions occur instead of the genitive in all its uses to express source or cause. Thus, verbs of *accusing*, etc., verbs of *reminding*, etc., sometimes take a phrase with a preposition; verbs of *remembering*, etc., a direct object; **miseret**, etc., an infinitive; the various adjectives, also, are used with prepositional phrases instead of the genitive. The poets and later writers use the genitive more freely with adjectives to express cause; sometimes also to express specification, where an ablative or locative might be expected.

For a partitive genitive a phrase with a preposition is not unusual, oftenest with **de** or **ex**.

The GENITIVE is used (as a possessive case) —

- | | |
|---|-----|
| (a) To denote the possessor. | 285 |
| (b) To define a noun more closely. | 286 |
| (c) To denote the subject of the implied action or feeling. | 287 |
| (d) To denote the object of the implied action or feeling. | 288 |

The idea of *source* passes into that of *separation*, and in a few cases a genitive is found in poetry, where an ablative of separation would be the usual construction. Probably the habit of imitating Greek constructions (common in the Augustan poets) is the cause of this use.

[285] *Possessive genitive.* **membra hominis**, *a man's limbs*; **natura deorum**, *the nature of the gods*. Used with any noun denoting a thing capable of possession in the widest sense; also with adjectives used substantively; e.g., **aequalis ejus**, *his equal in age*; **similis Caesaris**, *like Caesar* (*Caesar's like*), etc. This genitive is often put in the predicate, and *mark, duty*, or some such word supplied in translation; e.g., **est hominis**, *'tis a man's duty*; **hominis est errare**, *it is characteristic of man to make mistakes*.

The genitive case of the personal pronouns is not used, in prose, as a possessive. The possessive pronouns are used instead.

A possessive genitive is found with **ergo**, **instar**, **tenus**, **pridie** and **postridie**, which were originally nouns, but have sunk to prepositions or adverbs.

[286] *Appositive genitive.* **urbs Romae**, (*Rome's city*, i.e.) *Rome*; **urbs Buthroti**, *the city of Buthrotum*. This is properly a possessive genitive. It is rarely found, an appositive being far more usual.

[287] *Subjective genitive.* **deorum factum**, *a deed of the gods*. The word it limits must imply, of course, an action or feeling. In some cases it is hard to draw the line between the subjective and the possessive use of the genitive, and the possessive pronouns are used for it as for a possessive genitive.

[288] *Objective genitive.* **usus membrorum**, *the use of the limbs*; **cura rerum alienarum**, *the care of others' interests*. The objective genitive limits nouns and adjectives that imply an action or feeling which may pass over to an object. **amans sui**, *fond of himself*; **capax urbis mag-**

	The genitive is used, further —
289	(a) To denote price or penalty.
290	(b) With a few verbs and adjectives of plenty and want.
291	(c) With interest and rēfert .

nae, *capable-of-holding a large city*. As objective genitives, **mei**, **tui**, **sui**, **nostri**, **vestri** are used (**nostrum**, **vestrum** very rarely).

A phrase with a preposition (**in**, **erga**, etc.) may be used instead of the objective genitive. This use of the genitive, like that of the subjective genitive, is a development of the idea of possession, the action or feeling, whether done to one or by one, being thought of as something belonging to him.

[289] The genitive of price has been mentioned [274]. The genitive of penalty is found in **capitis damnare**, *to condemn to death*, and similar expressions. It seems to have arisen from confusion with the genitive of the crime, but possibly there may be an ellipsis of the word on which the genitive depends, the expression having been originally a legal phrase. Penalty is usually expressed by the ablative.

[290] With verbs and adjectives of *filling*, *fullness*, the genitive seems to come under the head of *source* or *cause*; but an ablative of means is more common. With other expressions the genitive is not common, except in the poets and later writers, who seem, in many cases, to use it in imitation of the Greek, to express not only *want* or *lack*, but often also *separation* or *specification*, ideas which are regularly expressed by the ablative. The verb **potior**, also, which usually takes an ablative, is found with a genitive. **domus erat plena ebriorum**, *the house was full of drunken men*; **temeritatis implere**, *to fill with rashness*; **exercitationis indiget**, *needs practice*.

[291] **nullius interest**, *it makes no difference to any one*; **illorum refert**, *it concerns them*. In this construction, the possessive pronoun forms **meā**, **tuā**, **suā**, **nostrā**, **vestrā** are used, instead of the genitive of a personal pronoun. The origin of this genitive is not clear, but **rēfert** is commonly thought to stand for **rem fert**; in which case the genitive is possessive, and **meā**, **tuā**, etc., stand for **meam**, **tuam**, etc. The genitive and possessive pronoun with **interest** may be explained as having arisen from the analogy of **rēfert**, which has the same meaning, and naturally takes the same construction.

The ablative in Latin has taken on itself the functions of four different cases, the meaning and force of which are rudely given by the four prepositions most often used to translate it,—*from, by, in, with.* 292

1. FROM—The Ablative Proper.

The ABLATIVE PROPER is used—

(a) To denote the place from which motion proceeds. 293

(b) To denote separation, source and origin. 294

[292] The classification here given of the uses of the ablative is not meant to be absolute or scientific. The various uses shade into one another, and a sharp line of division is, in many cases, impossible. In doubtful cases, the clue offered by other constructions has been generally followed; thus *cause*, though often passing insensibly into *means*, has been put under “ablative proper” rather than “instrumental,” because of the frequent use of *a, de* or *ex* to express cause; *price*, though in many cases “instrumental,” has been put under “locative” because of the locative of price, etc. But analogy fails in many cases,—the name of a town used in dating letters is found not only in the ablative, but also in the locative and in the ablative with *a*. Should the ablative when so used be regarded as “place where” or “place from which”? Some of these doubtful cases are mentioned in the notes; if the teacher should choose to transfer any usage from one head to another, no harm will come of it, as the sole object of the classification is to render it easier to learn and keep in mind the various uses.

[293] This use is generally limited in prose to names of towns and small islands, and *domo, humo, rure*. (Other words usually take a preposition.) *Corintho fugit*, fled from Corinth; *rure huc advenit*, came hither from the country.

[294] *hostem rapinis prohibere*, to keep the foe from plunder; *Jove natus et Latonā*, born of Jove and Latona; *satus terrā*, sprung from earth. (A preposition is often used, however, to express separation or source.)

Under this head belongs the use of the ablative with verbs and adjectives denoting want and lack; e.g., *vacuus curā*, free from care; *isto nomine caruit*, it lacked that name. (The genitive is also thus used; see 290.)

- 295 (c) To denote cause.
 296 (d) To denote the standard of comparison.

2. BY — The Instrumental Ablative.

The INSTRUMENTAL ABLATIVE is used —

- 297 (a) To denote the means or instrument.

[295] The *ablative of cause* is used with a great variety of expressions, and rendered into English by various prepositions. **animi vitio id evenit**, *that came about from a fault of character*. So with **gaudere**, *to rejoice (in)*; **niti**, *to depend (on)*; **confidere**, *to trust (to)*; **contentus**, *satisfied (with)*; **laetus**, *glad (of)*; etc.

[296] This ablative is translated “than.” **nihil est viro dignius aequitate**, *nothing is more worthy of a man than justice*. “Than” is also expressed by **quam**, and the usage of Latin speech is roughly the following:—

(a) When the standard of comparison is a relative pronoun, the ablative is used.

(b) When the standard of comparison is subject, or an attribute of the subject, either the ablative or **quam** may be used.

(c) When two adjectives are compared, **quam** is used, and both adjectives take the same degree. **magis disertus quam sapiens**, *more learned than wise*; **verior quam gratior**, *more true than popular*.

(d) With adverbs the ablative is often used loosely in indefinite comparisons; e.g., **dicto citius**, *sooner than said*. So **spe**, **opinione**, **justo**, etc.

(e) In expressions of *size, number, weight*, etc., after the adverbs **plus**, **minus**, **amplius**, **longius**, either the ablative or **quam** may be used. But **quam** is often omitted in such constructions, and the word denoting the standard of comparison left in the same case as if **quam** were expressed; e.g., **plus tria millia**, *more than three thousand*.

(f) In cases not included in the above **quam** is used in prose, but the ablative is more freely used in poetry. So too with **alius**, *other (than)*.

On the border between the ablative proper and the instrumental ablative stands its use to denote the material of which a thing consists; e.g., **animo constamus et corpore**, *we are made up of soul and body*.

Here, too, may be placed the use of the ablative with **facio**, **fi** and **sum** in the peculiar idioms, **quid facias . . . ?** *what can you do with . . . ?* and **quid fiet . . . ?** *what will become of . . . ?* e.g., **quid hoc homine faciat** ? *what could you do with this fellow ?*

[297] *Ablative of means.* **lacte et carne vivunt pellibusque sunt**

(b) To denote the amount of difference.

298

3. IN — The Locative Ablative.

The LOCATIVE ABLATIVE is used —

(a) To denote the place where an action takes place.

299

vestiti, they live on milk and flesh and are clothed with skins; eum coronā donasti, you presented him with a crown.

fruar, fungor, potior, utor, vescor are limited by an ablative of means, which is usually translated as a direct object. **lacte, caseo, carne vescor, I eat milk, cheese, flesh** (i.e., *feed myself with*); **Crassus aedilitate functus est, Crassus held** (*busied himself with*) *the ædileship*. In regard to the reflexive use of these deponents, see 154. (In old Latin they sometimes take a direct object, and a remnant of their transitive meaning is seen in their present passive participles, which are used with *esse* to make the “second periphrastic conjugation,” like those of other transitive verbs. **potior** also takes a genitive; see [290].)

The ablative of means is used also with **opus** and **usus**; e.g., **opus est pecuniā, (there is a work [to be done] with money, i.e.) there is need of money**. In this construction, instead of a noun denoting action we sometimes find the perfect passive participle, or the ablative of the supine; e.g., **opus est properato, there is need of haste; opus est factu, there is need of action**.

The ablative may denote the road or route by which one goes. **Aureliā viā profectus est, he went by the Aurelian way; flumine adverso, up the river; recto litore, straight along the shore; etc.** This use may be considered either instrumental or locative, as the road is looked on as a *means* of travel or a *place* of travel.

[298] *Ablative of degree.* **paulo longius processit, he went on a little farther; decem annis ante Punicum bellum, ten years before the Punic war.** So with **abesse, distare, etc.**, to express distance; e.g., **quinque milibus ab urbe distat, is five miles from the city; a litore tridui navigatione, three days' sail from the coast.**

quo . . . eo and **quanto . . . tanto** occur often in correlative clauses, and are translated by *the . . . the*. **quo difficilior, eo praeclarius, the more difficult, the more glorious.**

[299] *Ablative of place.* This use is generally limited in prose to names of towns and islands, words which mean “place” (**loco, locis, parte, etc.**), words limited by **totus** or **medius**, and a few phrases. (Other words usually take a preposition. For the locative of “place where” see 273.) **Tamesis uno omnino loco transiri potest, the Thames can be crossed in**

- 300 (b) To define the application of the word it limits.
 301 (c) To denote the time when or within which an action takes place.
 302 (d) To denote extent of time or space.
 303 (e) To denote price or penalty.

4. WITH—The Comitative Ablative.

The COMITATIVE ABLATIVE is used —

- 304 (a) To denote accompaniment.

one place only; **totis trepidatur castris**, *there is a panic in the whole camp*. So **Carthagine Novā**, *at New Carthage*; **Trallibus**, *at Tralles*; **terrā marique**, *by land and sea*; **dextrā**, *on the right*, etc. In the case of plural names of towns, it is indifferent whether the case be called ablative or locative.

[300] *Ablative of specification*. Translated *in, in respect to, in point of*, etc. **temporibus errasti**, *you were mistaken in the date*; **grandis natu**, *advanced in life*; **rex nomine, non potentiā**, *king in name, not in power*. Here belongs the ordinary use of the supine in the ablative; e.g., **mirabile dictu**, *strange to tell*; possibly also the ablative with **dignus** and **indignus**; e.g., **indignus est vitā**, *he is unworthy of life*. But see [303].

[301] *Ablative of time*. **tertiā vigiliā solvit**, *he set sail in the third watch*; **solis occasu**, *at sunset*; **decem diebus proximis**, *within the next ten days*. Some expressions of time contain at the same time a suggestion also of cause, means or specification; e.g., **bello civili periit**, *he lost his life in the civil war*; **duobus his proeliis**, *in these two battles*, etc.

[302] *Ablative of extent*. **pugnatum est horis quinque**, *the fight lasted five hours*. An accusative is more often used to express extent of time or space. See 266.

[303] *Ablative of price*. **vendidit hic auro patriam**, *this man sold his country for gold*. *Ablative of penalty*. **tertia parte agri damnati**, *fined a third part of their land*; **morte damnatus**, *condemned to death*. With verbs of *exchanging* either what is given or what is received may be treated as the price. With some verbs the ablative of price seems to be instrumental rather than locative. Price is also expressed by the locative, and penalty by the genitive. See 274 and 289.

An ablative is used with the adjectives **dignus** and **indignus**, and with the verb **dignor**, which seems to come under the head of price, but is not quite clear. See [300]. **haud me tali dignor honore**, *I do not think myself worthy of such honor*.

(b) To describe anything by expressing its qualities or appearance.	305
(c) To denote manner or attendant circumstances.	306
The ablative is used, further —	
(a) As the case absolute.	307

[304] *Ablative of accompaniment.* This use is limited in prose to military expressions, giving the troops or forces with which a movement is made. **Caesar subseqvatur omnibus copiis**, *Caesar followed with all his troops*. In other expressions the preposition **cum** is used.

[305] *Ablative of description.* In this use the ablative, like the descriptive genitive, requires a limiting adjective or a limiting genitive. **pari acclivitate collis**, *a hill of equal steepness*; **ore rubicundo homo**, *a red-faced fellow*. It is often best rendered by a compound adjective, as in the last example.

[306] The *ablative of manner* is generally limited in prose to words meaning “manner” (**modo**, **ratione**, etc.), and words which have a limiting adjective. **aequo animo mori**, *to die with resignation (an even mind)*; **id summo studio a militibus administratur**, *this is performed by the soldiers with the greatest zeal*. Other words take regularly the preposition **cum**, except a few like **injuriā**, *unjustly*, **silentio**, *silently*, which have become equivalent to adverbs in their use; and those which contain also the idea of *cause* or *means*; e.g., **nox cantu aut clamore acta**, *the night was spent in singing and shouting*; **pedibus proeliari**, *to fight on foot*; **versibus scribere**, *to write in verse*, etc.

The *ablative of attendant circumstances* lies between the ablative of manner and the ablative absolute (which often expresses manner or circumstance), and cannot be separated by any distinct line from those uses. **In foro summā hominum frequentiā exscribo**, *I am writing in the forum with a great crowd (around me)*. So in various phrases: **injussu Caesaris**, *without Caesar's orders*; **pace tuā**, *by your leave*; **tuo periculo**, *at your own risk*, etc. Here seem to belong two or three cases of the gerundive (see 349), which are often regarded as ablative absolute. **nullis officii praeceptis tradendis**, *without giving rules of duty*; **accusandis Camillus dis hominibusque senescebat**, *Camillus grew old accusing gods and men*.

[307] The *ablative absolute* may be referred to either division of the case, according to the modification it expresses. It denotes most often *time*, *cause*, *means*, *manner*, *concession* or an *accompanying event*, and should

- 308** (b) With the prepositions **a** (**ab**, **abs**), **absqve**, **de**, **coram**, **palam**, **cum**, **ex** (**e**), **sine**, **tenus**, **pro** and **prae**; and sometimes with **in**, **sub**, **subter**, **super**.

be translated accordingly, usually by a modifying clause, but in the last case often by an independent clause, the proper connective (*and*, *but*, etc.) being supplied. **Germani, post tergum clamore audito, armis objectis, se ex castris ejecerunt**, *the Germans, when they heard the outcry in their rear, threw away their arms and burst out of the camp*. (Here **clamore audito** denotes time, and **armis objectis** an accompanying circumstance). **nostri omnes incolumes, perpaucis vulneratis**, *our men were all safe, though a few were wounded* (concession); **multis telis dejectis, defensores depellebant**, *they drove off the defenders by throwing many missiles* (means).

The ablative absolute consists regularly of a noun and a participle, the former being subject, the latter predicate of the implied statement. For predicate, however, a predicate-noun or adjective is often used, the lacking participle of the verb **sum** being supplied in translation. Rarely a clause or an infinitive is used as subject of the participle.

The ablative absolute is far more common than the English nominative absolute, to which it corresponds. Only seldom can the latter be used to translate it; the best rendering is usually by a modifying clause. The lack of a perfect active participle in Latin makes the construction far more frequent than it would otherwise be, and an English participial construction is often a good translation, if the voice of the Latin verb be changed; *e.g.*, **Caesar, obsidibus acceptis, exercitum in Bellovacos duxit**, *Cæsar, having received hostages, led his army*, etc.; **convocato consilio, eos incusavit**, *calling a council, he upbraided them*.

A few cases occur of the ablative absolute joined to the sentence it limits by a conjunction: **nisi munitis castris**, (*unless after the camp had been fortified*) *unless the camp had been (first) fortified*; **qvasi praedā sibi advectā**, *as if booty had been brought to him*; **tanqvam non transituris in Asiam Romanis**, *as if the Romans were not going to cross into Asia*.

In a few cases the participle stands alone as an ablative absolute, its subject being omitted. This corresponds to the impersonal use of a finite verb-form. **nihil festinato, nihil prapparato**, *without haste, and without preparation*; **diu certato**, *after a long fight* (lit. *it having been fought long*), like **diu certatum est**, (*it was fought long*) *there was a long fight*.

[308] The ablative with prepositions may be assigned to the divisions of the case as follows:—

Use of the Tenses.

The use of the tenses is, in general, the same as in English. 309

The perfect indicative, in its use, is either definite or indefinite. The perfect definite corresponds to 310

Ablative proper: **a, absque, de, ex, sine.**

Locative ablative: **coram, palam, tenus, pro, prae, in, sub, subter, super.**

Comitative ablative: **cum.**

In and **sub** take the ablative with expressions implying rest, the accusative with expressions implying motion. **Subter** and **super** usually take the accusative; rarely the ablative, except **super** when it means "concerning."

A few words, commonly adverbs, are sometimes found with the ablative like prepositions; such are **procul, simul, clam.**

[309] The present indicative is often used, as in English, for a past tense (imperfect or perfect indefinite). In this use it is called "historical present." After the conjunction **dum**, "*while*," the present is often used in the same way, though a past tense is necessary in English.

With adverbs meaning "*long*" (**jam, diu**, etc.), the present and imperfect, though they have their proper force, are usually rendered into English by the perfect and pluperfect. **jamdiu machinaris**, *you have long been plotting (and are plotting yet)*; **diu comparabam**, *I had long been preparing (and was still doing so)*.

The imperfect denotes a past action or state as continuing, repeated or customary, sometimes as attempted. **dicebat**, "*he said*," "*he was saying*," "*he used to say*," or even "*he tried to say*."

The future indicative is sometimes used, as in English, to express a command. Compare [315]. For the lacking future and future perfect subjunctive, the present and perfect subjunctive are commonly used; but when it is necessary to avoid ambiguity, the subjunctive of the first periphrastic conjugation may be used.

In letters, the imperfect and pluperfect tenses are sometimes found where the English would use the present and perfect; the time of the receipt of the letter, not the time of writing, being reckoned from.

Poets sometimes use the perfect indefinite, in imitation of Greek, to state a general truth.

[310] The perfect subjunctive is usually definite, except when it stands for an indefinite perfect indicative which has been changed to the subjunctive in a dependent statement, by 322.

the English “present perfect”; *e.g.*, **amavi**, *I have loved*. The perfect indefinite corresponds to the English “past”; *e.g.*, **amavi**, *I loved*.

311 The present, perfect definite, future and future perfect are primary tenses; the imperfect, perfect indefinite and pluperfect, secondary.

312 In most subordinate clauses the subjunctive takes a primary tense (present or perfect) when the verb on which it depends is primary, and a secondary tense (imperfect or pluperfect) when the verb on which it depends is secondary. This usage is called *sequence of tenses*.

Use of the Moods.

The INDICATIVE is used —

313 (a) To make a statement directly.

314 (b) To ask a question directly.

[311] The English “perfect with have” is usually the equivalent of the definite perfect, but rarely our idiom requires “have” as a translation of the indefinite perfect.

The historical present is sometimes secondary, following meaning rather than form.

[312] The rule of sequence is not a principle of grammar, but simply the statement of a somewhat unsettled usage. It is subject to violation whenever the sense requires; but this rarely happens, except in consecutive clauses, and conditions impliedly false. See 326 and 327.

[313] The use of the indicative is the same as in English.

[314] Questions answered by “yes” or “no” are not marked, as in English, by the order of the words, but by the interrogative particles **-nē** and **num**. **-nē** is appended to the prominent word of the sentence (usually the first word), and simply shows that the sentence is a question. **sentisne?** *do you perceive?* Rarely **-nē** is omitted.

The insertion of a negative word shows, as in English, that the answer “yes” is expected. In such a case, **-nē** is appended to the negative word. **nonne sentis?** *do you not perceive?*

The IMPERATIVE is used —

(a) To give a command directly.

315

The SUBJUNCTIVE is used (in independent sentences) —

(a) To make a statement doubtfully.

316

(b) To ask a question doubtfully.

317

num shows that the answer “no” is expected. **num sentis?** *you don't perceive, do you?*

Double (or alternative) questions take **utrum**, **num** or **-nē** in the first clause, and **an** or **-nē** in the second.

Exclamatory sentences are questions in form, are introduced by the same interrogative words, and take the same construction.

[315] The use of the imperative is the same as in English, but a prohibition is seldom expressed by the simple imperative. Instead of it we find (a) **nē** with the perfect subjunctive, (b) **nolī** (plural **nolite**) with an infinitive, (c) **cavē** (plural **cavēte**) with the present subjunctive. “Do not speak” would be **ne dixeris**, **noli dicere**, or **cave dicas**; seldom in prose, **ne dic**.

Rarely a future indicative is used in a command. **expectabis**, *you will wait*.

The imperative forms in **-to**, **-tote**, **-nto**, **-tor**, **-ntor** (often called future imperative), are old forms, usually found only in legal language (in laws, wills, etc.), and in poetry.

[316] *Potential* subjunctive. It corresponds to the English potential, and should be translated by *may, might, could, would, should*, etc., according to the sense of the passage. **velim**, *I should wish*; **vellem**, *I could wish*; **crederes**, *you would think*; **nemo istud concedat**, *no one would admit that*. Doubtful statements are most common with a conditional clause to limit them, and usually take the same form as the verb of the condition. Sometimes they are used where a conditional or concessive clause would have the same force.

The potential subjunctive may be used in dependent as well as independent sentences, where the indicative would make a positive statement, while the writer desires a doubtful one. This is especially the case in relative sentences, which, though dependent in form, are often practically equivalent to independent statements.

[317] There are two forms of questions in which the subjunctive is found. The first is simply the potential subjunctive of 316, when the statement is changed into a question; e.g., **crederesne?** *would you think?* The

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| 318 | (c) To give a command doubtfully:— |
| 319 | 1. In exhortations. |
| 320 | 2. In wishes. |
| 321 | 3. In requests or mild commands. |

other use is the *dubitative* subjunctive. It is found in doubtful or rhetorical questions; *i.e.*, such as do not require an answer, but imply in themselves a negative answer. **quid faciam?** *what can I do?* **quid facerem?** *what was I to do?* **quis dubitet?** *who doubts?* **quis vellet?** *who could wish?* The implied answer in all these is “nothing,” “no one.” So **quiescerem et paterer?** *was I to keep quiet and suffer?* [No.] The subjunctive in such questions is really potential, but in English the indicative is often used, or the mood-verb *can*, while the subjunctive of 316 is more often rendered by *may*, *might* or *would*.

[319] *Hortatory* subjunctive. Used in the first person plural; *e.g.*, **moriāmur!** *let us die!* **in arma ruāmus!** *let us rush into the fight!*

[320] *Optative* subjunctive. **tibi di quaecumque precaris dent,** *may the gods give you all the blessings you pray for;* **moriar, ni puto,** *may I die, if I don't believe . . .!* A particle of wishing (**O, uti, utinam,** etc.) often accompanies this use of the subjunctive. (**O si** is used in the same way, but is a conditional clause.) The secondary tenses imply that the wish cannot be realized, and sometimes approach the notion of a past obligation. **utinam viveret,** *would that he were alive!* **ne poposcisses,** *you ought not to have asked (lit., would that you had not asked).*

[321] *Jussive* subjunctive. Common in the third person, where the imperative is seldom used, but rare in prose in the second person, except in prohibitions (see [315]), and when the subject is indefinite (*you* = *any one*). **relinqvas,** *leave (= one may leave).* **hoc amet, hoc spernat,** *let him choose this and reject that.*

This subjunctive, beside the uses given, often occurs where other constructions are common in Latin, *viz*:

With **modo** or **tantum**, “only” as the equivalent of a condition.

With **ut, ne, quamvis,** etc., “however much,” as the equivalent of a concessive clause.

E.g., **multa in eo admiranda sunt, eligere modo curae sit,** *there is much in him that is admirable, if one only takes pains in choosing (lit., only let it be your care to choose);* **velis tantummodo,** *if only you wish;* **quamvis prudens sis, tamen . . .** *though you be wise, yet . . . (lit., be as wise as you will, quam vis).* At times, this subjunctive is so used without the adverbs mentioned; *e.g.*, **roges,** *you may ask (i.e., if you ask, or though you ask).*

The SUBJUNCTIVE is used (as the indirect mood) —

(a) In the subordinate clauses of dependent statements. 322

(b) In dependent questions. 323

[322] The subjunctive of 322, 323, and 324, is a substitute for the indicative and imperative of 313, 314, and 315, when direct statements, questions or commands are reported and made to depend on verbs of *saying or thinking, asking or answering, commanding or forbidding*.

Direct statements, when made dependent on verbs of *saying or thinking*, change the indicative of the principal clauses to the infinitive; that of the subordinate clauses to the subjunctive.

The potential subjunctive, in principal clauses, becomes the infinitive of the active periphrastic conjugation.

Occasionally subordinate clauses, especially relative clauses, take the infinitive, being equivalent to principal clauses in their meaning. A few cases occur of the use of the infinitive by a sort of attraction, even in conditional clauses and the like.

The same principle often causes the subjunctive to be used in relative and other subordinate clauses, that do not depend on verbs of saying or thinking, but limit a sentence whose verb implies the thought or statement of another person. **Paetus libros, quos frater suus reliquisset, mihi donavit**, *Paetus gave me the books which his brother (as he said) had left*. Sometimes, by a careless construction, the verb of saying is inserted, and put in the subjunctive instead of the verb of the sentence, which in this case depends on the inserted verb. **litteras, quas me misisse diceret, recitavit**, *he read a letter which he said I had written*. Causal clauses also take the subjunctive on this principle, when the cause is given not on the authority of the speaker or writer, but of some other person, and show the same irregular insertion of **dico**. Compare [328].

Subordinate clauses remain in the indicative, when they form no part of the reported statements, but are inserted by the narrator as explanations. Occasionally, also, though very rarely in good writers, other subordinate clauses are found in the indicative.

[323] Direct questions, when made dependent on a verb of *asking or answering*, change their verbs to the subjunctive. **quis est?** *who is he?* (direct); **nescio quis sit**, *I know not who he is* (indirect); **quanto res sit in periculo, cognoscunt**, *they learn in how great danger the matter is*.

In old Latin dependent questions are often in the indicative.

In long passages of a formal, reported speech, dependent questions are

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| 324 | (c) In dependent commands.
The SUBJUNCTIVE is used (in dependent sentences)— |
| 325 | (a) In final clauses, and in substantive clauses developed from them. |

sometimes in the infinitive. In such cases, the question is usually equivalent to a statement, and not asked for the sake of an answer. See 470, 477.

With **haud scio an, nescio an**, *I know not whether*, the verb often remains in the indicative, these phrases having become practically equivalent in force to adverbs, "*perhaps*," "*probably*."

[324] Direct commands, when made dependent on verbs of *commanding* or *forbidding*, change their verbs to the subjunctive. **patribus nuntia urbem munit**, *tell the senate to fortify the city*; **jures postulo**, *I require you to swear*; **Ariovistus respondit, cum vellet, congregaretur**, *Ariovistus answered (telling him), to meet him when he pleased*. In many cases, however, **ut** or **ne** is inserted before the verb, thus making a purpose clause (see 325); and after **jubeo** and **veto**, less often after other verbs, the verb is changed to the infinitive, becoming an object. See 338.

[325] Final clauses denote purpose. In Latin they are relative clauses, and are introduced by relative pronouns or by relative adverbs. **legatos miserunt qui dicerent**, *they sent envoys to say . . .* (lit. *who should say*).

Ut, *how*, is the most common to introduce a purpose clause. **Ne** is the negative of **ut**, and is used like a conjunction to introduce the purpose clause, **ut** being very rarely expressed before it. **ut iter faceret Genabum proficiscitur**, *he sets out to go to Genabus*; **postulavit ne quem peditem Caesar adduceret**, *he demanded that Caesar should bring along no foot-soldier*; **veni ut te hortarem**, *I came to encourage you*.

Qvō is generally used instead of **ut** when the purpose clause contains a comparative. **qvo minus** (often written as one word) is the negative of **qvo**, and is found after verbs of *hindering*, *refusing*, etc. **qvo fiat facilius**, *that it may be done the more easily*; **me deterret hiems qvominus eam**, *the storm prevents me from going*.

Qvī (an old abl. = **qvo**) is common in the older language. **qvin** (= **qvi ne**) is the negative of **qvi**. It is often difficult to decide whether clauses with **qvin** and **qvominus** should be put under the head of purpose or result clauses. See [326].

Ut is often omitted after verbs of *willingness* and *permission*, and after **dic** and **fac**; seldom elsewhere. **fac sis**, *see that you be . . .*; **dic veniat**, *tell him to come*; **volo facias**, *I wish you to do . . .*; **licet eas**, *you may go*

(b) In consecutive clauses, and in substantive clauses developed from them.	326
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(lit., *it is allowed that you go*). **licet** with a following subjunctive often expresses a concession. **licet laudem fortunam, tamen . . .**, *I may praise fortune, yet . . . (= though I praise, yet . . .)*. **ne** is omitted after **cave, cavete**. **cave ignoscas**, *do not pardon* (compare [315] (c)). In many cases it is possible that these subjunctives might be classed as dependent commands; the verbs they depend on nearly all express *consent* or *command*.

The purpose clauses, **ut ita dicam**, "*so to speak*"; **ne longum sit**, "*to be brief*," and the like, are used parenthetically, as in English. The same is the case with **nedum**, "*much less*." **sumptus sufferre nequeo, nedum possis**, *I cannot stand the expense, much less can you*.

Purpose clauses easily pass into substantive clauses, and are often used in Latin where subject or object clauses are used in English, especially after verbs denoting an exercise of the will; e.g., *wishing, permitting, commanding*, etc. After verbs of *fearing* this difference of idiom compels us to translate **ne** by "*that*," and **ut** by "*that not*." **timeo ne veniat**, *I fear that he will come*; **timeo ut veniat**, *I fear that he will not come*.

[326] Consecutive clauses express a result. They are relative clauses in Latin, and are introduced by a relative pronoun, or by the relative adverbs **ut** or **qvin**. **tantus fuit terror ut Volusenus fidem non faceret**, *so great was the panic that Volusenus was not believed*. **qvin**, "*but that*," is used after general negatives and after verbs of *hindering, doubting*, etc.; e.g., **non est dubium qvin**, *there is no doubt that . . .*

Result clauses introduced by a relative pronoun express a characteristic, or a result of the nature or character of the antecedent; e.g., **non sum ille ferreus qvi non movear**, *I am not so callous as not to be moved*. They are most common after indefinite antecedents; e.g., **sunt qvi**, *there are (some) who*; **qvis est qvi**, *who is there that . . .*, etc.; after **unus** and **solus**; and after general negatives **nemo**, **nullus**, **nihil**. In such clauses, **qvin** may be used for the nominative (rarely accusative) of the relative pronoun and a negative; e.g., **nemo est qvin putet**, *there is no one who does not think*.

Relative clauses of result may follow the adjectives **dignus**, **indignus**, **idoneus**, **aptus**. **dignus est qvi laudetur**, *he is worthy to be praised*. Here also belong the restrictive clause **quod sciam**, *as far as I know*, and others like it.

Consecutive clauses, like final clauses, are very frequent in Latin where the English uses subject or object clauses, and it is often difficult to draw

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| 327 | (<i>c</i>) In conditions impliedly false.
The SUBJUNCTIVE <i>may</i> be used, further — |
| 328 | (<i>a</i>) In causal clauses. |
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the line between purpose and result. Clauses with **qvin**, in particular, often seem to be final rather than consecutive, and it is often a matter of indifference to which use such object-clauses should be referred.

Consecutive clauses easily pass into subject or object-clauses, and occur with a great variety of verbs. As subject they are found with verbs meaning "*it happens*," "*it remains*," etc.; as object they are most common with verbs meaning "*accomplish*," "*bring it about*"; **facio**, **efficio**, etc. In a few cases they pass into appositive clauses.

[327] Conditions impliedly false take the secondary tenses,—the imperfect for present time, the pluperfect for past time. **si tu hic esses**, *if you were in my place* (but you are not); **si adfuisssem**, *if I had been there* (but I was not). Conditional clauses are introduced by **si**, *if*, and its compounds, or by a relative pronoun or adverb. Sometimes the conjunction **si** is omitted, as in English; e.g., **fecisses**, *had you done* (= *if you had done*).

The primary tenses of the subjunctive are often used in conditions though the supposed case may be false, because the speaker or writer chooses to represent it as possible; e.g., **tu si hic sis, aliter sentias**, *if you were I, you would feel differently* (more strictly, *if you should be in my case*, implying that such a thing is possible). Such are really future conditions in form, and come under 331.

Conjunctions meaning "*as if*" (**ac si**, **qvasi**, **qvamsi**, **tanquam si**, **ut si**, **velut si**, **ceu**, also **tanquam** and **velut** when **si** is omitted) are used with an ellipsis of the verb on which the condition depends. **ac si scrip-sisses**, *as (would be the case) if you had written*; **velut haud ulla mora futura esset**, *as if there were to be no delay*. Here too the primary tenses are often used, though the connection shows that the supposed case is untrue; e.g., **tanquam si claudus sim**, *as if I were lame* (i.e., *as would be the case if I should be lame*); **jacent tanquam sine animo sint**, *they lie as if they were dead* (i.e., *as they would lie, if it should turn out that they are dead*). **essent** would imply that the speaker thinks that they are not dead).

[328] Causal clauses after a relative pronoun or **cum** take the subjunctive regularly, except in old Latin; after **qvoniam**, usually. After other causal conjunctions the indicative is used if the speaker or writer gives the cause on his own authority, the subjunctive if he gives it as the allegation of some one else. **qvae cum ita sint**, *since this is so*; **Panaetius laudat Africanum quod fuerit abstinens**, *Panaetius praises Africanus because he*

(b) In concessive clauses.

329

(c) In temporal clauses.

330

was (as *Panæti*us says) temperate. (Here *Panæti*us is made responsible for the statement that *Africanus* was temperate; *quod fuit* would make the statement the writer's.) The relative pronoun introducing a causal clause is often preceded by *ut*, *utpote*, *quippe*, and the verb of the clause is sometimes, though rarely, in the indicative.

[329] Concessive clauses after *cum* are regularly in the subjunctive; after *quamquam*, in the indicative. Of the other conjunctions translated "though," the compounds of *si* (*ac si*, *etsi*, etc., also *tanquam*, *velut*, *sicut*, where *si* is omitted) introduce conditional clauses, and have the same construction; *quamvis*, *ut* and *ne* take the subjunctive of doubtful command (see [321]); *licet* is a verb, and is followed by a final subjunctive with *ut* omitted (see [325]).

[330] Temporal clauses referring to past time usually take the indicative, except after *cum*, which takes the subjunctive of the secondary tenses; and, in later writers, after *antequam* and *priusquam*.

Temporal clauses, however, in many cases express some other modification of the thought than simple time, and are therefore followed by the subjunctive. Thus:—

dum, *dum modo* take the subjunctive when they mean not simply "as long as," but "if," "provided." *oderint dum metuant*, let them hate as long as they fear (i.e., if they fear).

dum, *donec*, *quoad* take the subjunctive when they imply purpose. *manebo, dum veniat*, I shall wait for him to come (until he comes).

ante quam and *prius quam* take the subjunctive of purpose, the clause expressing the act whose occurrence is to be prevented or anticipated, or, less often, a simple purpose, or something expected and counted on. *sic omne [opus] prius est perfectum quam intellexeretur ab Afranio castra muniri*, thus the whole work was finished before *Africanus* knew that the camp was being fortified (i.e., the work was done secretly, that *Africanus* might not know before it was done); *antequam pronuntient, vocem sensim excitant*, they excite the voice gradually, before they declaim (i.e., with the purpose or expectation of afterwards declaiming).

The subjunctive is used in the same way with expressions that mean "sooner than," "rather than,"—e.g., *potius quam*, *citius quam*, *libentius quam*,—though the idea of time has disappeared. *depugna, potius quam servias*, fight it out rather than be a slave (i.e., in order not to be a slave). But *ut* is sometimes inserted after *quam* in such clauses.

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- 331 (d) In future conditions.
 332 (e) In general conditions.
 333 (f) In clauses dependent on a subjunctive.
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Use of the Non-Finite Verb-Forms.

- 334 The infinitive is a verbal noun, originally in the dative case. It has become, however, in Latin, an indeclinable noun, and may replace any case in construction, but is restricted to certain uses.
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Temporal clauses may take the subjunctive also, if they have the same force as conditional clauses which would take the subjunctive.

[331] A future condition is one, the truth or falsity of which will appear, if at all, in the future. The future (or future perfect) indicative may be used in such, or the present (or perfect) subjunctive. The latter has much the same force as in a doubtful statement, and leaves the hypothesis doubtful. It corresponds to the English "should." *si veniat, if he should come; si probus sit, if he (should prove to) be honest.*

A relative or a temporal clause sometimes has the same force as a future condition, and takes the same construction.

[332] General conditions are such as refer to all time, and limit statements of general truths. *memoria minuitur, nisi eam exerceas, the memory weakens, unless one exercises it.* The indicative is more common in such, except when the subject is an indefinite person, as in the quotation.

In later writers the secondary tenses of the subjunctive are sometimes used in conditional clauses (and in relative or temporal clauses implying a condition) to express a repeated action. *ubi dixisset, whenever he had said . . .; quocumque se intulisset, wherever he went . . ., etc.*

[333] Clauses dependent on a subjunctive are attracted into the subjunctive if they contain an essential part of the thought, or give a modification of the verb they limit, which could not be omitted without an essential change of the idea. Restrictive clauses, for example, become subjunctive if dependent on a subjunctive, while those which are simply explanatory or parenthetical remain in the indicative. *non pugnabo quominus utrum velis eligas, I shall not oppose your taking which you will.* Here the speaker gives his opponent the privilege of taking either of two alternatives; (*vis* would imply that the opponent had in some way shown his

The INFINITIVE is used —

(a) As an indirect object.	335
(b) To express purpose.	336
(c) As subject of a verb.	337
(d) As object of a verb.	338

choice, and that the speaker did not object to his taking *that one*, though he might not consent to his taking *the other*). The clause **utrum velis** is essential to the thought, because without it the speaker simply allows the taking of *one* alternative; with it, he allows the taking of *either one*.

In many cases, however, the subjunctive seems to be simply potential. See 316. Thus, **utrum velis** above, may be translated "*whichever you may wish.*" Whether the speaker shall use the indicative or the subjunctive in such clauses is to a great extent a matter of choice, as he may prefer to make the statement more or less positive in form.

[335] The infinitive of indirect object (also called *complementary* infinitive) follows intransitive verbs which require a second action of the same subject to make their sense complete, and the passive voice of verbs of *saying* and *thinking*, when they have a personal subject. **possum videre**, *I can see* (lit., *I am powerful for seeing*); **Caesar dicitur advenisse**, *Cæsar is said to have arrived*. In some cases it is difficult to draw the line between the infinitive of indirect object and that of direct object. If the verb is transitive, the infinitive, after it may be called direct object, but unless it takes a direct object in other constructions, the infinitive should be called indirect object. The English translation is no guide in such a case, as many verbs are transitive in English, while verbs of the same meaning are intransitive in Latin.

[336] This use is rare and poetical. It corresponds to the dative of purpose.

[337] The infinitive of subject or object is used as in English, but is far more common, being especially frequent with verbs of *saying* or *thinking*. It is thus used either with or without an expressed subject. **errare est humanum**, *to err is human*; **biennium sibi satis esse duxerunt**, *they thought that two years was enough for them*. For this infinitive the English often uses a subject or object clause with "*that*," as in the example given.

[338] When the subject of an object infinitive is the same as that of the verb that governs it, this subject (*se*) is sometimes omitted. **quæ**

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| 339 | (e) As an appositive or predicate noun. |
| 340 | (f) To limit nouns or adjectives as genitive, accusative or ablative. |
| 341 | (g) In exclamatory phrases. |
| 342 | (h) In vivid narration as a substitute for the indicative. |
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imperarentur, facere dixerunt, *they said that they were doing what was ordered*. (But **se facere** is more common.) In such cases, the predicate noun or adjective is usually attracted into the nominative. See [255].

[339] **id nuntiatum est eos conari**, *this news was brought, (namely) that they were trying . . .* An infinitive is frequent in apposition with **hoc, id, illud**, etc., used as subject or object, where the infinitive itself might stand as subject or object. (Compare, in English, "*it is human to err*," with "*to err is human*.") As a predicate-noun, the infinitive has nothing peculiar. **vivere est cogitare**, *living is thinking*.

[340] Rare and chiefly poetic. **tempus est cogitare**, *it is time to think*; **dignus amari**, *worthy to be loved*; **parati certare**, *ready to fight*; **certus ire**, *resolved to go*. The gerund or a derivative noun is generally used in such cases; **dignus amore, parati ad certandum, certus eundi**. In a few cases, it stands with a participle as ablative absolute, limiting the whole statement. See [307].

Many nouns and adjectives with the verb "be" have the force of verbs of saying or thinking, and take an infinitive which has the same force as an object infinitive. Thus, **auctor sum**, *I assert*; **sum dolore affectus**, *I am sorry*, etc. The infinitive after such seems to be object of the verbal notion implied, not depending directly on the noun or adjective, but governed by the verbal force of the phrase. It may be likened to the use of a direct object of a noun or adjective. See [262].

[341] The *exclamatory* infinitive may be compared with the nominative and accusative in exclamations. See 259 and 264. It is sometimes introduced by the interrogative particle **-ne**. **hoc non videre!** *not to see this!* **me nec desistere!** *that I should cease!*

[342] Called *historical* infinitive. Occasionally found in rapid narration as a substitute for the present or imperfect indicative, and takes its subject in the nominative. **Caesar frumentum flagitare** (= **flagitabat**), *Cæsar kept demanding the corn*.

The PARTICIPLES are verbal adjectives, like the English participles. They are used —	343
(a) As simple adjectives, to limit nouns.	344
(b) As predicate adjectives with sum , to make the periphrastic conjugations.	345
(c) With the force of clauses.	346
The passive participles, when used as simple adjectives to limit nouns, often express a complex idea	347

[344] **furens regina**, *the raging queen*; **urbs mature peritura**, *a city destined soon to fall*; **fessi milites**, *wearied soldiers*; **hostis timendus**, *a fearful foe*. This use is most common with the present active and perfect passive participles. Some participles become adjectives altogether in force and construction.

The passive participles, in particular the present passive, when used as adjectives often have the force of the English verbal adjectives in *-able*; e.g., **acceptus**, *acceptable*; **forma expetenda**, *desirable*; **sacra non adeunda**, *unapproachable*; **vix numeranda**, *almost innumerable*.

[345] This use is rare with the present active participle (where it makes a form equivalent to the present active of the verb; **amans est** = **amat**).

[346] This use is very common with the present active and perfect passive participles, especially in the construction of the ablative absolute, and the participle is predicate of the equivalent clause; the word it limits, subject. The participle thus used may have the force of a relative clause, modifying only the word it limits, but more frequently it modifies the whole statement and is equivalent to a temporal, causal, concessive, conditional, or (rarely) final clause; sometimes to an independent clause. **his rebus nunciatis**, *when this was reported*; **progressus in Nitiobriges**, *after he had advanced . . .*; **non audent, absente imperatore, egredi**, *they dare not go out, because the general is away*; **Cadureus, in Rutenos missus**, *Cadureus, who had been sent . . .*; **reluctante natura**, *if nature opposes*; **ut hos transductos necaret**, *to carry them over and kill them*. The present passive participle is rarely so used, however, being almost entirely restricted to uses (a) and (b); and the future active participle is not common in this use, though it is sometimes found with the force of a final clause, especially in later writers.

[347] **ab urbe condita**, *from the founding of the city*; **vos vitam ereptam negligetis?** *will you disregard the taking of life?* So always in

which is best rendered into English by a verbal or abstract noun containing the meaning of the participle, and an object or limiting phrase containing the meaning of the noun.

- 348** The GERUND is a verbal noun found in the oblique cases of the singular. It is declined and governed as a noun, but shows its verbal force in the fact that it is limited by adverbs, and may govern an object.

the gerundive construction. (See [349].) *consilia urbis delendae*, plans for destroying the city; *Platonis studiosus audiendi*, desirous of hearing Plato. So *ejecti reges*, the expulsion of the kings; *natus Augustus*, the birth of Augustus, etc. In *notum furens quid femina possit*, the knowledge of what a mad woman can do, the participle limits a clause.

[348] The name “nominative of the gerund” is often given to a construction, which most grammarians regard as an impersonal use of the passive periphrastic conjugation; e.g., *mihi dormiendum est*, I must sleep. This construction resembles the passive periphrastic conjugation in conveying the notion of duty or propriety, but is sometimes like the gerund in being active and taking an object; e.g., *via quam nobis ingrediendum est*, the road we must go; *monendum te est mihi*, I must warn you. There seems to be no doubt that the gerund is a specialized use of the neuter of the present passive participle, at a period when the meaning and force of the form was not so definite as later. The gerund is often passive in force, — e.g., *in res difficilis ad explicandum*, a matter hard to be explained, — and the passive participle is sometimes active, e.g., *placenda dos est*, the dower must please. The “nominative of the gerund” seems to lie between the two.

The gerund in the genitive case, in a few instances, becomes so fully a noun that it takes an objective genitive instead of an object accusative, and takes the possessive pronoun adjective modifiers *mei*, *tui*, *sui*, *nostri*, *vestri*, instead of an object; e.g., *exemplorum eligendi potestas*, a chance to select examples; *vestri adhortandi causa*, for the sake of your encouragement (i.e., of encouraging you). (In cases like this, however, the genitives *mei*, *vestri*, etc., may be considered objective genitives like *exemplorum* above.)

The gerund is limited in its use as follows:—

In the genitive it may be a possessive, an appositive, or an objective genitive. In the dative it may be an indirect object, or may limit adjectives.

The gerund of transitive verbs is rare, and its place is usually supplied by the gerundive. This consists of a noun and the present passive participle in agreement with it (the two words expressing the complex idea spoken of in 347). 349

The SUPINE is a verbal noun, found only in the accusative and ablative singular. 350

The accusative of the supine is used with verbs of motion to express purpose. 351

tives. In the accusative it may follow a few prepositions (*ad* most often). In the ablative it may denote means or specification, rarely separation, manner or circumstance, and may also follow prepositions (*in* most often).

[349] The name gerundive is often used of the participle only, and the noun and participle taken together are then called the "gerundive construction."

The gerundive is less restricted in its use than the gerund. Besides the uses of the gerund it is used in the genitive (with *causā* omitted?) to express purpose; in the dative to express purpose, see [272]; in the accusative as direct object; in the ablative to express manner or the standard of comparison. A few illustrations of both gerund and gerundive are added:—

GENITIVE. *cupidus te videndi*, desirous of seeing you; *finem facit dicendi*, he makes an end of speaking; *sui muniendi non Galliae impugnandae causā*, for the sake of defending himself, not of attacking Gaul.

DATIVE. *scribendo dat operam*, he gives attention to writing; *rubens ferrum non est habile tundendo*, not good for forging. So in the phrase *non esse solvendo*, to be unable to pay, and the like.

ACCUSATIVE. *non vacuus sum ad narrandum*, I have no leisure for story-telling; *ad eum oppugnandum*, to attack him; *signum collocandum consules locaverunt*, the consuls let out the (job of) setting up the statue; *aedem habuit tuendam*, he had the care of the temple.

ABLATIVE. *in dando munificus*, free in giving; *alitur vitium tegendo*, a vice is nourished by hiding it; *de contemnenda morte*, concerning contempt for death; *de liberis educandis*, of the training of children. So, often in the titles of philosophical treatises.

[351] *venit auxilium postulatum*, he came to ask help. This is strictly an accusative of limit. (See 265.)

With *ire*, "go," the accusative of the supine make a construction nearly the same in force as the future tense; e.g., *imusne sessum?* (are we going

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| 352 | The ablative of the supine is used as an ablative of specification. (See 300.) |
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to sit?) *shall we take a seat?* By putting the infinitive **ire** in the passive, a form is obtained to supply the lacking future infinitive passive; *e.g.*, **putat se visum iri**, *he thinks he will be seen*.

[352] **horribile visu!** *fearful to see!* **mirabile dictu!** *strange to tell!* In some of its uses the ablative of the supine seems to approach the meaning of a dative, and may be so called if one prefers. The form may be in either case.

With **opus** the ablative of the supine seems to come under the head of means rather than specification. See [297].

PART V.

THE LAWS OF VERSE IN LATIN.

Quantity.

Latin versification is based on a regular succession of long and short syllables. Quantity is therefore usually treated in connection with versification. 353

General rules of quantity are such as apply to all syllables. (They have been given, 14-18.) 354

Special rules of quantity are such as apply only to particular syllables. In Latin we have special rules of quantity for final vowels of stems and for suffix-vowels. 355

The original quantity of final vowels of stems and of suffix-vowels has been changed in many instances by certain tendencies affecting final syllables; viz.:— 356

[353] The system of versification described here was borrowed with slight modifications from the Greek poets, and was in use during and after the classical period. An older system, called Saturnian, is found in fragments of the older Latin, in epitaphs, etc., but is not found in literature.

[354] The rules for syllables, long or short by position, do not always apply in the comedies; syllables are treated as short in many cases, though their vowels are followed by two consonants. This is especially the case before final -s, which had but a slight sound in old Latin.

In older Latin also, many of the special rules of quantity which follow are not applicable, as the tendencies spoken of had not taken effect so fully as later. In most cases the difference consists in the use of a vowel as long which is shortened in the later language. In a few cases the later poets have followed the older quantity, in imitation of the older writers.

[356] These are called tendencies, and not rules, because they do not act systematically but affect certain words and leave others untouched.

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| 357 | 1. A tendency to shorten final open vowels. |
| 358 | 2. A tendency to shorten vowels before final -m , -r and -t . |
| 359 | 3. A tendency to lengthen final close vowels. |
| 360 | 4. A tendency to lengthen open vowels before final -s . |
| 361 | 5. A tendency to lengthen accented monosyllables. |
| 362 | 6. A tendency to lengthen the vowel of a final syllable if an inflectional letter has been dropped. |
| 363 | These tendencies seem to be allowed freer play, or to be restricted in their effect, when for metrical convenience it is desirable to use a long syllable or a short one instead of the reverse. |

It is probable that some old law of accent is at the bottom of most of them. Their influence is more often negative than positive, *i.e.*, they act as a restraint on certain syllables that would otherwise be more liable to change.

[360] When an open vowel is brought before final **-s** by the loss of **t** or **d**, the tendency to lengthen seldom shows itself.

[361] This tendency would explain **dās**, **dā**, **vās**, **pēs**, **grūs**, **sūs**, **vīs** (from **volō**), **vīs** (noun), various particles, and perhaps **sāl**, **sōl**, **lār**, **pār**, **mās**, though these fall also under No. 6. But it is difficult to see why the neuters, **mēl**, **fēl**, **ōs**, etc., should be left short, or why certain unaccented prepositions and conjunctions should be made long; *e.g.*, why the preposition **āb** should be short while the same preposition **ā** should be long. It is clear that accent does not explain the difference; and we may regard this tendency as doubtful, or greatly restricted.

[362] The inflectional letters most often lost are the nominative singular suffix **-s** of masculine and feminine semivowel-stems, and the suffix **-m** of the first singular active of verbs. The loss of a stem-letter does not seem to affect the preceding vowel. **vīs** (= **vil-s**) seems to come under No. 5.

[363] Thus **ābīēs**, **āriēs**, **pāriēs**, perhaps to prevent the concurrence of so many short syllables, are brought under the influence of No. 4, though usually such words remain unaffected. See [360]. A final syl-

The special rules for quantity are the following:—	364
I. In open vowel noun- and adjective-stems	
The vowel after the theme is short in the nom.,	365
acc. and voc. sg.; long elsewhere,	
Except -ēs in the nom. sg. of e-stems. (4)	366
Except -ā in the nom. and acc. pl. of neuter	367
o-stems. (1)	
II. In close vowel noun- and adjective-stems	
The vowel after the theme is short in the nom. and	368
acc. sg., and in the dat. and abl. pl.; long elsewhere,	
Except -ēs in the nom. sg. of i-stems. (4)	369
Except -ū in the nom. and acc. sg. of neuter	370
u-stems. (3)	
III. The vowels of suffixes of nouns and adjectives,	371
when not contracted with the stem-vowel, are short,	
Except -ī final in the gen. and dat. sg. (3)	372
Except -ēs in the nom. and acc. pl. (4)	373
VI. The pronouns in general follow the rules of	374
quantity for noun- and adjective-stems of like form.	

lable may be subject to more than one tendency, acting in the same or in contrary directions; in the latter case a common syllable is sometimes the result. For example, **ō**, in the present indicative active first singular of the verb, comes under 6 and 1.

[364] The numbers following the exceptions refer to the tendencies that explain them.

[365] **o** is short in **duō**; sometimes in **ambō**. These rules, I. and II., are rules for final stem-vowels, but the expression "vowel after the theme" is used, because the stem-vowel often disappears by contraction with the vowel of the suffix.

[368] **I**-stems, when they lose **i** and become consonant-stems, of course come under rule III.

For **grūs**, **sūs** and **vīs**, see [361]. **Bōs** is contracted.

[374] **O** of **ēgō** is short; **qvī** (nom.) is long. (5).

In the forms unlike those of nouns and adjectives, it should be noticed that we find the vowel after the theme long in

375 The nom. neuter forms in **-e**, (6)

376 The personal pronouns, except the dat. sg.;
and common in

377 The gen. sg. ending **-ius**.

We find the suffix vowel

378 Common in the dat. sg., **-bī**, **-hī**. (3)

379 Long in the dat. and abl. pl., **-bīs**.

380 **V.** In the nominative singular of consonant-stems the quantity of the last syllable of the stem is retained, except in

381 Nominatives in **-ō** from stems in **-ōn** and **-īn**. (1, 6)

382 Nominatives in **-ōr** from stems in **ōr**. (2)

383 **arbōs**, **Cerēs**, **pubēs**; **abiēs**, **ariēs**, **pariēs**, **pēs**. (4)

384 **sāl**, **lār**, **pār**; **mās**. (5 or 6)

385 **VI.** In the verb the final vowel of vowel-stems is long

386 Except before final **-m** or **-t**. (2)

387 **VII.** In the mood-and-tense signs the initial vowel before **-r** is short when unabsorbed; the other vowels are long

388 Except before final **-m**, **-r** and **-t**. (2)

[378] The same suffix **bī** is found in **ibī** and **ubī**, old case-forms of **is** and **qui**.

[385] The length of the final vowel of verb-stems is due to the absorption of the initial vowel of the sign or suffix. It is short, therefore, in those verb-forms that omit this vowel; viz., the verb **do**, throughout [except **dās**, **dā** (5)] and in the subjunctive **fōrem**, etc., infinitive **fōre**, and the twelve non-finite stem-forms given in [209].

In the imperative active second singular, the stem-vowel **e** is occasionally shortened in a few forms that are often used interjectionally; e.g., **vidē**, see! **tacē**, hush! **cavē**, beware!

VIII. The vowels of verb-suffixes are short	389
Except final -ī .	(3) 390
Except -ō of the ind., when unabsorbed.	(1, 5) 391
Except -ō in the imper. endings -ītō , -ītōtē , -untō .	392
Except -ū in the fut. act. part. ending -tūro .	393
IX. The reduplication-prefix is short.	394
X. Uninflected monosyllables are long, if they end in a vowel; short, if they end in a consonant.	395
XI. In uninflected polysyllables the tendencies mentioned above have fuller effect, and become rules,	396
Except final -ā .	397

Versification.

Syllables, in Latin verse, are either long or short, a long syllable being in most cases the equivalent of two short ones.	398
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[387] **E** is usually long in the perfect active ending **-ērunt** (rarely **-ērun**); **i** is short in the perfect active ending **-imus**. The occasional shortening of **i** in the perfect subjunctive sign is due to confusion with the future perfect indicative. See [175].

[389] For **i** in the future perfect active suffixes, see [179].

[390] The final **i** of **-īmīnī** is properly a nominative plural ending of an old participial form, and therefore long by rule III.

[395] **Crās** and **ēn** are long; also **nōn** (contracted). **Cūr**, **hīc**, **hūc**, **quīn**, **sic**, **sīn**, contain old case-forms.

Qvē, **nē**, **vē**, **cē**, **ptē**, are always attached to other words, and are therefore not monosyllabic in their use. **Rē-** is usually short (standing for an older form **rēd-**).

[396] Final **ē** and **ō** in adverbs from **o**-stems are only apparent exceptions; such adverbs are old case-forms. But a few of these are shortened (by 1), giving **benē**, **malē**, **infernē**, **supernē**; **citō**, **modō**, **ilicō**, **profectō**; rarely other words. **ōhē** should, perhaps, be two words.

[397] Final **a** is shortened in **ejā**, **itā**, **putā**, **quiā** (an old accusative plural). Note as an exception also **penēs**.

399 A foot is a combination of two or more syllables, used as the element of a verse.

400 The fundamental feet in Latin verse are the following:—

401 The Dactyl (*one long, two short*), $\underline{\cup} \cup \cup$.

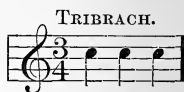
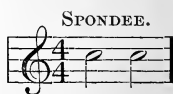
402 The Anapest (*two short, one long*), $\cup \cup \underline{\cup}$.

403 The Trochee (*one long, one short*), $\underline{\cup} \cup$.

404 The Iambus (*one short, one long*), $\cup \underline{\cup}$.

405 By substituting a long syllable for the two short ones in the dactyl or anapest we get a spondee, — — ; and by resolving the long syllable of the trochee or iambus into two short ones, we get a tribrach, $\cup \cup \cup$. These are not used as the fundamental foot of a verse, but are often substituted for it, and may therefore be called “substitute” feet.

[401] It will be noticed that the dactyl and anapest, being equivalent to four short syllables, correspond to quadruple time in music, while the trochee and iambus correspond in like manner to triple time. They may be represented in musical notation as follows:—



The accent given above shows the metrical stress. Substitute feet take the metrical accent of the feet they replace, and when a long syllable is resolved into two short ones, the metrical stress falls on the first of the two short.

In lyric and dramatic writers are found other feet also; viz.: the Pyrrhic, $\cup \cup$; the Bacchi \ddot{u} s, $\cup \text{— —}$; the Cretic, $\text{—} \cup \text{—}$. By combining the fundamental feet and their substitutes are formed various compound feet; e.g., Diiambus, $\cup \text{—} \cup \text{—}$; Ditrochee, $\cup \text{—} \cup \cup$; Dispondee, — — — — ; Choriambus, $\text{—} \cup \cup \text{—}$; Greater Ionic, $\text{— —} \cup \cup$; Lesser Ionic, $\cup \cup \text{— —}$; etc.

The trochee and iambus are not used singly to form verses, but in pairs, called *dipodies*. 406

A verse is a set of feet or dipodies, recurring regularly, and forming a "line" of poetry. 407

Verses are named from their fundamental foot, and from the number of feet or dipodies they contain. 408

The most common kinds of verse are the following:— 409

(a) Dactylic Hexameter, — six dactyls or equivalent spondees. Its scale is 410

— ∪ ∪ — ∪ ∪ — ∪ ∪ — ∪ ∪ — ∪ ∪ — ∪
— — — — — — — — (— —)

The spondee is regular in the sixth foot, but rare in the fifth. 411

(b) Dactylic Pentameter, — two parts, each of two dactyls and a half. Its scale is 412

— ∪ ∪ — ∪ ∪ — | — ∪ ∪ — ∪ ∪ — ∪
— — — — — | — — — — —

The spondee is allowed in the first part, not in the second. 413

[408] Dactylic, trochaic, iambic, etc., from the kind of foot; monometer, dimeter, trimeter, etc., from the number of feet or dipodies.

[410] The cæsura (see 420) usually falls in the third foot; less often in the fourth, or second.

[411] A trochee often replaces the final spondee. See 419.

[412] The dactylic pentameter is the same as the hexameter, with the loss of the second half of the third and sixth feet. This loss is analogous to a rest in music. The pentameter is not used alone, but alternately with the hexameter to form the "elegiac couplet." The following verses give illustrations of this use, and show the character of each kind of verse:—

ille ěgō qvī fűĕrim, || tĕnĕrōrum lűsōr ămōrum,

qvem lĕgis, ut nōris, || accĭpĕ postĕrĭtās.

Sulmo mihi patria est, || gĕlĭdis ũberrĭmus undĭs,

mĭlĭā qvī nōvĭĕs || distāt āb urbĕ dĕcĕm.

- 414** Iambic and trochaic verses are composed of dipodies, and verses of various length occur, either complete or catalectic (*i.e.*, lacking the last syllable).
- 415** The first foot of any iambic dipody, and the second foot of any trochaic dipody may be replaced by a spondee, or, rarely, by the equivalent of an iambus, trochee or spondee.
- 416** In comedy the spondee, and the equivalents of the spondee, the trochee, or the iambus may stand in any foot except the last.
- 417** In order to understand the structure of Latin verse, the following facts of usage must be noted:—
- 418** (a) A final vowel, or final **-m** with the foregoing vowel, is regularly dropped when the next word begins with a vowel or **h**.
- 419** (b) The last syllable of a verse may be either long or short at the option of the writer.

ēdītūs hinc ēgō sum, || nec nōn ūt tempōrā nōrīs,
 cum cecīdīt fātō || consūl ūterqvē pārī:
 sī qvīd īd est, usqvē ā prōāvīs || vētūs ordīnīs hērēs,
 nōn mōdō fortūnae || mūnērē factūs ēquēs.

(For the loss of a final vowel in verse before an initial vowel, see 418.)

[414] The most common iambic verse is the trimeter, consisting of three dipodies; the most common trochaic verse is the tetrameter catalectic; four dipodies, but lacking the last syllable. The cæsure of the former occurs in the second dipody, usually in the first foot; the latter is divided uniformly by a diæresis after the second dipody.

[416] Various kinds of verses, besides those mentioned here, are found in the lyric poets, and the editions of their writings generally contain schedules of the metres used. It has not seemed necessary, therefore, to insert any description of them here.

[418] Called *elision*. It occurs very rarely at the end of a verse. Rarely, also, a vowel remains unelided within a verse. Such cases are called *hiatus*.

[419] *I.e.*, a short syllable may be used though the meter calls for a long one, and *vice versa*.

(c) Long verses are regularly divided into two nearly equal parts by a metrical pause, which usually coincides with a pause in the sense. . This pause is called *cæsura* when it occurs within a foot, and *diæresis* when it falls between feet. **420**

(d) Metrical irregularities occur at times, as in English poetry. A short syllable is found now and then where the metre calls for a long one, or a long one where the metre requires a short one. Two syllables are sometimes run into one. Such irregularities are very rare in good poets. **421**

[420] A *cæsura* occurs whenever a foot is divided between two words, but the name is usually given only to the *chief cæsura* as here. The dactylic pentameter gives a good illustration of diæresis.

SUPPLEMENT TO SYNTAX.

[A few peculiarities of usage, belonging rather to the lexicon, or to a manual of Latin composition, than to a grammar, are added here for convenience of reference.]

A. Negative Particles.

- 422 The usual negative is **nōn**.
423 An older negative is **haud**. It survives in a few phrases.
424 **Nē** is used in commands and in final sentences, also in **nē . . . quidem**, *not even*.
425 **nēqvě** (or **něc**) is equivalent to **et nōn**; **něvě** (or **neu**) to **et nē**.

B. Interrogative Particles.

- 426 Questions answered by *yes* or *no* are not indicated, as in English, by the order of the words, but by the use of the interrogative particles **-ně** and **num**.
427 **-ně** appended to the prominent word of the sentence shows that it is a question, but gives no indication what answer is expected.
428 The insertion of a negative word shows, as in English, that the answer *yes* is expected. In such cases **-ně** is appended to the negative as the prominent word.
429 **num** shows that the answer *no* is expected.
aderasne? *were you present?* **dixitne?** *did he speak?*
nonne aderas? *were you not present?* **nunquamne dicet?**
will he never speak?
num aderas? *you were not present, were you?*
430 The interrogative particle is sometimes omitted.
431 Questions are usually answered by repeating some of the words of the question, but sometimes **non** is used for *no*, and **etiam**, **vero**, or some other adverb of emphasis, for *yes*.

Alternative or double questions generally take **utrum** or **-ne** 432
in the first member, and **an** in the second.

utrum aderas an aberas? *were you present or absent?*

If the second member is simply a negative, "*or not*," it is ex- 433
pressed by **an non** or **necne**.

utrum aderas necne? *were you present or not?*

The first member of an alternative question is sometimes 434
omitted, and **an** seems to introduce a single question. In such
cases the question expresses some surprise, and **an** is nearly
equivalent to **num**.

an aderas? [*am I mistaken or*] *were you present?*

C. Use of the Pronouns.

The use of the pronouns is, in general, as follows:—

Ego and **tu** are used as in English, but are regularly omitted 435
in the nominative case, except when emphatic, as the personal
endings of the verb express them.

nos is sometimes used for a single person (= **ego**); **vos** is 436
never so used for **tu**.

sui is used for *him, her, them, their*, when these words refer to 437
the subject of the clause in which they stand. In a dependent
clause **sui** refers to the subject of the principal clause, if the
subordinate clause expresses the purpose or thought of that
subject. (For a pronoun of the third person not referring to
the subject, a demonstrative is used. See below.)

se and **suus** are sometimes used, however, referring to some 438
other word than the subject, if no ambiguity is caused by
doing so.

The possessive pronouns are used as in English. **Suus**, like 439
sui, is reflexive. (For a third person possessive, not reflexive,
the genitive of a demonstrative, **ejus, illius**, etc., is used.)

Hic means *this*; **ille, that**; **iste, that (of yours)**, and from its 440
frequent use in addressing an opponent, often has a contemptu-
ous meaning. **is** is a weaker *this* or *that*, and is the usual third
personal pronoun not reflexive. As antecedent of a relative,
is qvi means "*he who*," "*any one who*"; **ille qvi** means "*that*
(man yonder) who."

- 441** **Ipse**, when used as a substantive, is an emphatic "*he*," "*he himself*." As an adjective, it emphasizes the word it limits; **homo ipse**, "*the man himself*," "*the very man*"; **ego ipse**, "*I myself*," etc. The genitive is used to emphasize the possessive idea of the possessive pronouns; **mea ipsius sententia**, *my own opinion*.
- 442** When subject and object are the same, the Latin regularly emphasizes the former. **me ipse diligo**, *I love myself* (not **me ipsum**).
- 443** The relative **qvi** has the same force as the English *who*, *which*, or *that*, but is used more freely, often where the English uses a separate independent statement, so that **qvi** has the same force as **et is**, **et ille**, or **is autem**, **ille vero**, etc.
- 444** The indefinite pronouns in general mean *some*, *any*, *one*, etc. **quidam** means "*a certain*"; **qvis** and **qvispiam**, "*one*," "*any one*"; **aliquis**, "*some one*." **qvivis** and **qvilibet** mean "*any one you please*"; **qvisqvam** and **ullus**, "*any whatever*," and are usually used in negative sentences, so that with the negative they mean "*none at all*."
- 445** Many other words are used to express the indefinite idea of *some*, *any*, *a few*, etc. Their force and meaning must be learned from the lexicon and by practice in reading and writing the language.

D. Forms of Conditional Sentences.

- 446** Conditional clauses are regularly introduced by **si**, **if**, or a compound of **si**, and the verb of such a clause usually takes the mood of the verb on which it depends. The dependent condition is often called a *protasis*, the conclusion on which it depends an *apodosis*.
- 447** There are three well-marked forms of conditional sentences,—
(a) with the indicative; (b) with a primary tense of the subjunctive; (c) with a secondary tense of the subjunctive:—
- 448** (a) The indicative in conditions has its usual force and needs no special explanation. It regularly limits an indicative, but may depend on an imperative or a subjunctive of command. It implies nothing as to the truth or falsehood of the supposed case.

si deus es, tribuere mortalibus beneficia debes, *if you are a god, you ought to give benefits to men.*

sin autem homo es, semper cogita . . . etc., *but if you are a man, always consider . . . etc.*

inteream, si novi! *may I perish if I know!*

(b) The primary tenses of the subjunctive denote the non-existence of the supposed state, but imply its possibility, and refer therefore to the future. They usually limit a present or perfect potential subjunctive, but are also used to limit verbs whose meaning is such as to express a potential or hypothetical idea; e.g., **debeo, possum, volo**, etc., or the periphrastic conjugation forms. See 331.

si negem, mentiar, *if I should deny it, I should lie.*

defendat patrem, si arguatur, *he would defend his father, if he should be accused.*

(The perfect tense is rare, and differs from the present only in laying stress on the completion of the action.)

(c) The secondary tenses of the subjunctive express the non-reality of the supposed case, and refer therefore to the present or past, the imperfect being used for present time, the pluperfect for past. They regularly limit an imperfect or pluperfect potential subjunctive. See 327.

pacem non peterem nisi utilem crederem, *I should not ask for peace, if I did not think it advantageous.*

te necassem, nisi iratus essem, *I should have killed you had I not been angry.*

The second person singular of the present and imperfect subjunctive is used, moreover, in a general condition, to limit a present or imperfect indicative which states a general truth. See 332.

mens et animus, nisi oleum instillet extingvuntur *senectute, mind and soul are extinguished by age, unless one pours in oil.*

si attenderes acrius, strepitus vinculorum reddebatur, *if one listened more attentively, the rattling of chains was heard.*

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- 453 The conditional particle **si** is sometimes omitted. The verb is then usually put first, as in English.
roges me, nihil respondeam, *should you ask me, I should make no answer*; **dedisses**, *had you given*, etc.
- 454 So **absque te esset**, *were it not for you*, and like expressions in the comic poets.
- 455 The real conclusion is often omitted, or only implied in an epithet or exclamation. In such cases a conditional subjunctive often seems to limit an indicative, but the sense of the passage usually suggests the proper conclusion. Here belong expressions of wishing with **O si** (see 320); clauses expressing a comparison after **qvasi**, etc. (see [327]), subjunctives depending on **debeo, possum**, etc. (see 449), and various cases where the writer prefers to put a direct statement in place of a doubtful one suggested by the form of the thought.
- 456 Relative and temporal clauses sometimes imply a condition, and take the same construction as the implied condition would take, if formally expressed.

E. Reported Speech.

- 457 Reports of speeches or thoughts of others may be made by quoting the exact words uttered or thought, or with the form changed by making the words or thoughts dependent on some verb of saying or thinking, etc. In the latter case, the language is called "*oratio obliqua*," or "*indirect discourse*." *E.g.*, "*He said that he had made a mistake*," is indirect discourse corresponding to the direct form ("*oratio recta*"), "*I have made a mistake*."
- 458 When the words of a speaker or writer are quoted in the indirect form, the following changes take place:—
- 459 (a) The pronouns will change in person, as in English, according to the circumstances and requirements of the sense (ordinarily all becoming of the third person).
- 460 (b) The tenses only change as required by the rule of sequence, 312. But the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive in a condition impliedly false remains after primary tenses, to prevent confusion of meaning with future or possible condi-

tions, and the primary tenses are often retained after a secondary tense for vividness or exactness.

(c) When indicatives of those tenses which have no subjunctive (viz., *future* and *future perfect*) are changed to the subjunctive, or when indicatives of those tenses that have no infinitive (viz., *imperfect*, *pluperfect*, *future*, and *future perfect*) are changed to the infinitive, they take the tense nearest them in time. Thus the —

{	Future ind.	becomes	pres. subj. (or imperfect by sequence).	462
{	Fut. pf. ind.	“	perf. subj. (or pluperfect by sequence).	463
{	Imperf. ind.	“	perfect infinitive.	464
{	Plupf. ind.	“	perfect infinitive.	465
{	Future ind.	“	present inf. of active periphrastic conj.	466
{	Fut. pf. ind.	“	present inf. of active periphrastic conj.	467

(d) The moods change as follows: —

In *principal* sentences,

Statements	{	in ind. (313)	become infinitive.	468
	{	in sub. (316)	“ { inf. of active periph. conj. (usually perf., rarely pres.)	469
Questions	{	in ind. (314)	“ infinitive.	470
	{	1st & 3d pers.	“	
	{	in ind. (314)	“ subjunctive.	471
Commands	{	2d person	“	
	{	in sub. (317)	“ subjunctive.	472
	{	in imp. (315)	“ subjunctive.	473
	{	in sub. (318)	“ subjunctive.	474

In *subordinate* sentences,

All verbs	{	in ind. }	“ subjunctive.	475
	{	in sub. }		

As the first periphrastic conjugation has only an active meaning, when a subj. of statement is passive, it is expressed in the *oratio obliqua* by **futurum fuisse ut** (less often **futurum esse** or **fore**), followed by a passive verb.

(e) Relative clauses, though subordinate in form, are in many cases equivalent to principal clauses, and statements contained in such are sometimes treated as principal statements and are

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put in the infinitive instead of the subjunctive. In a few cases other subordinate clauses are treated in the same way, if the meaning would not be changed by making them independent in the direct form. The same principle is the cause of the use of the infinitive in reported questions of the first or third person, these questions being usually equivalent to statements, and put in the form of questions only for rhetorical effect.

- 478** (f) The indicative is used in explanatory clauses inserted by the narrator, and not belonging, therefore, to the reported speech. Rarely, also, the indicative is found in other subordinate clauses.

F. Order of Words and Clauses.

- 479** In a normal prose sentence the subject comes first and is followed by its modifiers; the verb stands last, preceded by its modifiers.
- 480** Modifiers of nouns may either follow or precede their nouns; modifiers of other parts of speech more often precede.
- 481** Demonstrative pronouns usually precede, and relative and interrogative pronouns regularly stand at the beginning of their clauses.
- 482** Modifying clauses are subject to the same general rules of order as words and phrases; those which limit nouns more often follow; those which limit verbs more often precede.
- 483** Few sentences of any length, however, show the normal order, as the usual position of words and clauses is constantly varied for the sake of rhythm or emphasis.
- 484** No definite statement of the influence of rhythm on the order of words can be given, but a dislike of a monosyllable (other than *est* or *sunt*) at the end of a sentence or of a line of poetry is noticeable in good Latin writers.
- 485** Any word may be emphasized by putting it out of its usual position. The beginning and end of a sentence are the specially emphatic positions.
- 486** In poetry the order of words is fixed to a great extent by the requirements of metre.

G. Dates.

The year is expressed in Latin by giving the names of the consuls for that year in the ablative absolute, or by the number of years from the founding of the city; *e.g.*:—

L. Pisone, A. Gabinio consulibus }
anno urbis conditae DCXCVI } = 58 B.C.
anno ab urbe condita DCXCVI }

These expressions are seldom written in full. For *consulibus* we find *coss.*; for *anno urbis conditae*, *a. u. c.*

The month is expressed by *mense* with the proper month-name added as an adjective; *e.g.*, *mense Junio*, in June; *exeunte mense Aprili*, at the end of April, etc.

The day of the month was reckoned backward from three fixed dates, the Kalends, Nones, and Ides (*Kalendae, Nonae, Idus*); the first being originally the day of the new moon, the last, that of the full moon. The Kalends was the first day of the month; the Nones was usually the fifth, but in March, May, July, and October, the seventh; the Ides was the eighth day after the Nones, and, therefore, the thirteenth or fifteenth.

Dates falling on the Kalends, Nones or Ides were expressed by *Kalendis, Nonis* or *Idibus*, with the name of the month added as an adjective; *e.g.*, *Kalendis Juniis* (June 1), *Nonis Aprilibus* (April 5), *Idibus Decembribus* (Dec. 13), etc.

Dates falling between the Kalends and Nones are reckoned backward from the Nones. The day before the Nones was called *pridie Nonas* (see [268]); the second day before was expressed by *tertio die ante Nonas*, or *ante diem tertium Nonas*, as the Romans counted in the day reckoned from. In like manner the third day before was called *fourth*, etc.

Dates falling between the Nones and Ides were expressed in the same way, *pridie Idus Aprilis, ante diem sextum Idus Martias*, etc. So, too, dates falling between the Ides and Kalends, the adjective added being, of course, the name of the following month.

These expressions are seldom written in full, the usual contraction being of the form *prid. Kal. Mart., IV. Non. Apr., VI. Id. Sept.*, etc.; or *a. d. iv Non. Apr.*, etc.

In leap-year the 24th of February was counted twice, so that both the 24th and 25th of the month were called *VI. Kal. Mart.*

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496 The days of the months are given in the following schedule:—

DAY OF MONTH.	JANUARY (also AUGUST and DECEMBER).	FEBRUARY.	MARCH (also MAY, JULY, and OCTOBER).	APRIL (also JUNE, SEPT., and NOVEMBER).
1	Kal. Jan.	Kal. Feb.	Kal. Mart.	Kal. Apr.
2	IV Non. Jan.	IV Non. Feb.	VI Non. Mart.	IV Non. Apr.
3	III " "	III " "	V " "	III " "
4	prid. " "	prid. " "	IV " "	prid. " "
5	Non. Jan.	Non. Feb.	III " "	Non. Apr.
6	VIII Id. Jan.	VIII Id. Feb.	prid. " "	VIII Id. Apr.
7	VII " "	VII " "	Non. Mart.	VII " "
8	VI " "	VI " "	VIII Id. Mart.	VI " "
9	V " "	V " "	VII " "	V " "
10	IV " "	IV " "	VI " "	IV " "
11	III " "	III " "	V " "	III " "
12	prid. " "	prid. " "	IV " "	prid. " "
13	Id. Jan.	Id. Feb.	III " "	Id. Apr.
14	xix Kal. Feb.	xvi Kal. Mart.	prid. " "	xviii Kal. Maias.
15	xviii " "	xv " "	Id. Mart.	xvii " "
16	xvii " "	xiv " "	xvii Kal. Apr.	xvi " "
17	xvi " "	xiii " "	xvi " "	xv " "
18	xv " "	xii " "	xv " "	xiv " "
19	xiv " "	xi " "	xiv " "	xiii " "
20	xiii " "	x " "	xiii " "	xii " "
21	xii " "	ix " "	xii " "	xi " "
22	xi " "	viii " "	xi " "	x " "
23	x " "	vii " "	x " "	ix " "
24	ix " "	vi " "	ix " "	viii " "
25	viii " "	v " "	viii " "	vii " "
26	vii " "	iv " "	vii " "	vi " "
27	vi " "	iii " "	vi " "	v " "
28	v " "	prid. " "	v " "	iv " "
29	iv " "		iv " "	iii " "
30	iii " "		iii " "	prid. " "
31	prid. " "		prid. " "	

497 The schedule here given was in use after Cæsar's reform of the calendar, B.C. 45. Before that date the Roman year had only 355 days, and an extra month was inserted every other year after Feb. 23.

APPENDIX.



498. List of Verbs

[*Compiled from Roby's Latin Grammar.*]

[This list contains all the verbs of the Latin language, with the following exceptions, viz. :—

1. Stems in **-a** or **-i**, which use the simple stem as present stem and form the perfect stem by adding **-v**. Most of them are derived from nouns or adjectives, and form their principal parts after the models here given :—

dōno	donāre	donāvi	donātum	dōna-
finio	finīre	finīvi	finītum	fīni-

2. Consonant-stems which form the present stem by adding **-e**, and the perfect stem by adding **-u**; and lack the forms from the simple stem. Most of them are derived from nouns or adjectives, and form their principal parts after the model here given :—

flōreo	florēre	florui	flōr-
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3. Verbs which form the present stem by adding **-sc**, **-esc** or **-isc**, and have only the incomplete tenses, or form the perfect stem, when one is found, by adding **-u**. Examples are :—

gemmasco	gemmascēre	gemma-
rōresco	rorescēre	rōr-
ingēmisco	ingemiscēre	ingēm-
	ingemui	

4. Compounds which do not differ from the simple verb, or differ only in the usual weakening of the stem vowel, or in being defective. Weakening of diphthongs is mentioned, however.

The supine form is given, though but few verbs have a supine in use, whenever a future active or perfect passive participle is found to decide what the form of the supine would be.

Forms preceded by a hyphen (*e.g.*, **-lictus**) are found only in compounds.]

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.	STEM.
Accerso (another spelling of arcesso).				
ăcuo	acuēre	acui	acūtum	<i>sharpen</i> ăcu-
aegreo	aegrēre			<i>be sick</i> aegr-?
ădđolesco (see -oleo)				<i>grow</i> ăd-đle-
agnosco (see nosco)				<i>know</i> ad-gno-
ăgo	agēre	ēgi	actum	<i>drive</i> ăg-
ăjo (defective. See [235].)				<i>say</i> ăg-?
albeo	albēre			<i>be white</i> alb-?
algeo	algēre	alsi		<i>be cold</i> alg-
ălo	alēre	alui	altum	<i>nourish</i> ăl-

alītum also in later writers.

ămicio	amiciēre	amici	amictum	<i>clothe</i>	ămic-
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amicui, **amixi** are mentioned as perf.

ango	angēre			<i>throttle, vex</i>	ang-
ăpiscor	apisci		aptus	<i>get</i>	ăp-
arceo	arcēre	arcui	{ arcus artus	<i>inclose</i>	arc-

In compounds, **ex-ercītus**, **co-ercītus**.

arcesso	arcessēre	arcessīvi	arcessītum	<i>summon</i>	arcess-i-
ardeo	ardēre	arsī	arsum	<i>be on fire</i>	ard-
arguo	arguēre	argui	argūtum	<i>charge</i>	argu-

arguīturus, once.

audeo	audēre		ausum	<i>dare</i>	aud-
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For perf. **ausus sum** is used. See [216] (g).

ăve (defective. See [235].)				<i>hail!</i>	
ăveo	avēre			<i>long</i>	ăv-?
augeo	augēre	auxi	auctum	<i>increase</i>	aug-

Bātuo	batuēre	batui		<i>beat</i>	bātu-
bībo	bibēre	bībi		<i>drink</i>	bīb-

The stem is properly **ba**, but becomes **bib-** by reduplication and loss of the final vowel. See [158].

-būro	-burēre	-bussi	-bustum	<i>burn</i>	būs-
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PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.	STEM.
Cădo	cadēre	cēcīdi	cāsum	<i>fall</i> căd-
caecūtio	caecutīre			<i>be blind</i> caecūti?
caedo	caedēre	cēcīdi	caesum	<i>fell, kill</i> caed-

Compounds weaken ae to ī.

căleo	calēre	calui	calitum	<i>be hot</i> căl-
calveo	calvēre			<i>be bald</i> calv-?
calvor	calvi			<i>play tricks</i> calv-
căneo	canēre			<i>be gray</i> căn-?
căno	canēre	cēcīni	(-cantum)	<i>sing</i> căn-

In compounds, the perfect is -cīnui (oc-cēcīni once).

căpresso	capessēre	capessīvi	capessitum	<i>seize</i> căpress-i-
căpio	capēre	cēpi	captum	<i>take</i> căp-
căreo	carēre	carui	caritum	<i>be in want</i> căr-
căro	carēre			<i>card</i> căr-
carpo	carpēre	carpsi	carptum	<i>pluck</i> carp-
căveo	cavēre	cāvi	cautum	<i>beware</i> căv-

cavitum, rare.

cēdo	cedēre	cessi	cessum	<i>yield</i> cēd-
cēdo (imperative) plur.	cette , no other forms.			<i>give</i> cēd-?
-cello	-cellere	-cūli	-culsum	<i>strike?</i> cěl-

Also **ex-cellui**. **celsus**, **excelsus**, **praecelesus** are adjectives.

-cendo	-cendēre	-cendi	-censum	<i>set on fire</i> cend-
censeo	censēre	censui	censum	<i>count</i> cens-
cerno	cernēre	crēvi	crētum	<i>decide</i> cěr-, cre-

certus is used as an adjective.

{ cio	{ ciēre	cīvi	cītum	<i>stir up</i> ci-
{ cio	{ cīre			

In compounds also **-cītus** sometimes.

cingo	cingēre	cinxi	cinctum	<i>gird</i> cing-
clango	clangēre			<i>clang</i> clang-
claudo	claudēre	clausi	clausum	<i>close</i> claud-

Compounds weaken the stem to -clūd.

clēpo	clepēre	clepsi	cleptum	<i>steal</i> clēp-
clueo	cluēre		-clūtum	<i>be called</i> clu-
coenātūrio	coenaturīre			<i>wish to dine</i> coenātūri-?

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
cognosco (see nosco)				<i>know</i>	co-gno-
cōgo	cogĕre	coĕgi	coactum	<i>compel</i>	co-ăg-
cōlo	colĕre	colui	cultum	<i>cultivate</i>	cōl-
coepio	coepĕre	coepi	coeptum	<i>begin</i>	co-ăp-
cōmo	comĕre	compsi	comptum	<i>comb</i>	cōm-
comperco	compercĕre	compersi		<i>save</i>	com-parc-
comperio (see pario)				<i>find out</i>	com-păr-
compesco (see pasco)				<i>curb</i>	com-păs-
concino (see cano)				<i>sing</i>	con-căn-
consūlo	consulĕre	consului	consultum	<i>consult</i>	consūl-
cōqvo	coqvĕre	coxi	coctum	<i>cook</i>	cōqv-
crēdo	credĕre	credīdi	credītum	<i>believe</i>	crē-d-
crĕpo	crepāre	crepui	crepitum	<i>rattle</i>	crĕp-
crĕsco	crescĕre	crĕvi	crētum	<i>grow</i>	cre-
{ cūbo	{ cubāre	cubui	cubitum	<i>lie</i>	cūb-
{ -cumbo	{ -cumbere				
cubāvi, rare.					
cūdo	cudĕre	cūdi	cūsum	<i>hammer</i>	cūd-
cūpio	cupĕre	cupīvi	cupītum	<i>desire</i>	cūp-i
Imperfect subjunctive cupīret once.					
curro	curreĕre	cūcurri	cursum	<i>run</i>	curr-
Compounds sometimes retain the reduplication.					
-cūtio (see qvătio).					

Dēbeo	debĕre	debui	debītum	<i>owe</i>	dēb-
dēgo	degĕre			<i>pass time</i>	dēg-
dēleo	delĕre	delēvi	delētum	<i>destroy</i>	dē-le-
dēmentio	dementĭre			<i>be mad</i>	dēmenti-?
dēmo	demĕre	demptsi	demptum	<i>remove</i>	dēm-
depso	depsĕre	depsui	depstum	<i>knead</i>	deps-
dīco	dicĕre	dixi	dictum	<i>say</i>	dīc-
dīlego (see lĕgo).					
disco	discere	dīdīci		<i>learn</i>	dīc-

Compounds keep the reduplication.

dīvīdo	dividĕre	divīsi	divīsum	<i>divide</i>	dī-vīd-
do (see 226)	dāre	dēdi	dātum	<i>give</i>	da-

Compounds retain the reduplication (except abscon-di).

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
dōceo	docēre	docui	doctum	<i>teach</i>	dōc-
dōleo	dolēre	dolui	dolītum	<i>grieve</i>	dōl-
dōmo	domāre	domui	domītum	<i>tame</i>	dōm-
dūco	ducēre	duxi	ductum	<i>lead</i>	dūc-
Ēdo (see 223)	edēre	ēdi	ēsum	<i>eat</i>	ēd-
essum and estum, rare.					
ēmo	emēre	ēmi	emptum	<i>take, buy</i>	ēm-
emptūrio	empturīre			<i>wish to buy</i>	emptūri-?
eo (see 227)	īre	īvi	ītum	<i>go</i>	i-
Perfect -ii in compounds.					
excello (see cello)				<i>excel</i>	ex-cel-
expergiscor	expergisci		experrectum	<i>arouse</i>	ex-pēr-rĕg-
expergītum, old.					
exuo	exuēre	exui	exūtum	<i>strip off</i>	exu-
Făcesso	facessēre	facessīvi	facessītum	<i>make</i>	făcess-i-
făcio	facēre	fĕci	factum	<i>make</i>	făc-
fallo	fallēre	fĕfelli	falsum	<i>deceive</i>	fall-
farcio	farcīre	farsi	fartum	<i>stuff</i>	farc-
făteor	fatĕri		fassus	<i>confess</i>	făt-
fătisco	fătiscēre		-fessum	<i>gape</i>	făt-
Also deponent.					
făveo	favēre	fāvi	fautum	<i>favor</i>	făv-
-fendo	-fendere	-fendi	-fensum	<i>strike</i>	fend-
fĕrio	ferīre			<i>strike</i>	fĕri-?
fĕro	ferre	(tŭli)	(lātum)	<i>carry</i>	fĕr-
tŭli and lātum are borrowed from tollo. tĕtŭli is old.					
{ ferveo	{ fervēre	fervi, ferbui		<i>boil</i>	ferv-
{ fervo	{ fervēre				
fīdo	fidēre		fīsum	<i>trust</i>	fīd-
fīsus sum is used as perfect. See [216], (g).					
fīgo	figēre	fixi	fixum	<i>fix</i>	fīg-
fictus, rare.					
fīo (see 229)	fīĕri		(factus)	<i>become</i>	fī-
fīndo	findēre	fīdi	fīssum	<i>cleave</i>	fīd-

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
finġo	finġere	finxi	fictum	<i>form</i>	fġ-
flaveo	flavere			<i>be yellow</i>	flav-?
fleo	flere	flēvi	flētum	<i>weep</i>	fle-
flecto	flectere	flexi	flexum	<i>bend</i>	flect-
-fliġo	-fliġere	-flixi	-flictum	<i>strike</i>	fliġ-
fluo	fluere	fluxi	fluxum	<i>flow</i>	fliġv-
fōdio	fodere	fōdi	fossum	<i>dig</i>	fōd-
fodiri old.					
foeteo	foetere			<i>be fetid</i>	foet-?
[for] see [235]	fāri		fātum	<i>speak</i>	fa-
fōveo	fovere	fōvi	fōtum	<i>cherish</i>	fōv-
frango	frangere	frēgi	fractum	<i>break</i>	frāg-
frēmo	fremere	fremui	fremġtum	<i>roar</i>	frēm-
frendo	frendere		fressum	<i>gnash</i>	frend-
Also frēsūm.					
frīco	frīcāre	fricui	frictum	<i>rub</i>	frīc-
Also fricātum.					
frīgeo	frigere	frixi		<i>be cold</i>	frīg-
frīgo	frigere		frictum	<i>roast</i>	frīg-
frondeo	frondere			<i>leaf</i>	frond-?
fruor	frui		fructum	<i>enjoy</i>	fru-, frug-?
fruitus once, fruiturus once.					
fūgio	fugere	fūgi	fugġtum	<i>flee</i>	fūg-
fulcio	fulcire	fulsi	fultum	<i>prop</i>	fulc-
{ fulgeo	{ fulgere	fulsi		<i>shine</i>	fulg-
{ fulgo	{ fulgere				
fundo	fundere	fūdi	fūsum	<i>pour</i>	fūd-
fungor	fungi		functus	<i>discharge</i>	fung-
[fuo] (see sum)		fui	fūturus	<i>be</i>	fu-
fūro	furere			<i>rage</i>	fūr-
Gaudeo	gaudere		gāvīsum	<i>be glad</i>	gāvīd-
gāvīsus sum is used as perfect. See [216], (g).					
ġemo	ġemere	ġemui	ġemġtum	<i>groan</i>	ġēm-
ġero	ġerere	ġessi	ġestum	<i>carry</i>	ġēs-
ġigno	ġignere	ġēnui	ġenġtum	<i>beget</i>	ġēn-
ġigno for ġigēno. ġēno is old.					

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
glisco	gliscēre			<i>swell</i>	gli-
glōcio	glōcīre			<i>cluck</i>	gloci-?
glūbo	glubēre		gluptum	<i>peel</i>	glūb-
grādiōr	gradi		gressus	<i>step</i>	grād-
In compounds -gredīri is found.					
-gruo	-gruēre	-grui		?	gru-
Hābeo	habēre	habui	habītum	<i>have</i>	hāb-
haereo	haerēre	haesi	haesum	<i>stick</i>	haes-
haurio	haurīre	hausi	haustum	<i>drain</i>	haus-
hēbeo	hebēre			<i>be blunt</i>	hēb-?
hisco	hiscēre			<i>yawn</i>	hi-
hūmeo	humēre			<i>be moist</i>	hum-?

-icio (for jacio in compounds).

īco ?	icēre	īci	ictum	<i>strike</i>	īc-
imbuo	imbuēre	imbui	imbūtum	<i>imbue</i>	imbu-
incesso	incessēre	incessīvi		<i>attack</i>	incess-i-
indulgeo	indulgēre	indulsi		<i>yield</i>	indulg-
indultum, late.					
induo	induēre	indui	indūtum	<i>put on</i>	indu-
īneptio	ineptīre			<i>trifle</i>	īnepti-?
infīt (no other form)				<i>begins</i>	?
inqvam (see [235])		inqvii		<i>quoth</i>	inqvi-?
intellēgo (see lego)				<i>understand</i>	intel-lēg-
īrascor	irasci		irātus	<i>be angry</i>	ira-

Jāceo	jacēre	jacui	jacītum	<i>lie</i>	jāc-
jācio	jacēre	jēcī	jactum	<i>throw</i>	jāc-
jūbeo	jubēre	jussi	jussum	<i>bid</i>	jūb-
jungo	jungēre	junxi	junctum	<i>yoke</i>	jung-
jūvo	juvāre	jūvi	jūtum	<i>aid</i>	jūv-

Also juvātūrus.

Lābor	labi		lapsus	<i>slip</i>	lāb-
lācesso	laccessēre	laccessīvi	laccessitum	<i>provoke</i>	laccess-i-
lacteo	lactēre			<i>suck</i>	lact-?
laedo	laedēre	laesi	laesum	<i>hurt</i>	laed-

Compounds weaken ae to ī.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
lambo	lambēre	lambi		<i>lick</i>	lamb-
langveo	langvēre	langvi		<i>be faint</i>	langv-
{ lāvō	{ lavēre	lāvi	{ lotum		
{ lāvō	{ lavāre		{ lautum	<i>wash</i>	lāv-
Also lavātum.					
lēgo	legēre	lēgi	lectum	<i>choose</i>	lēg-
Perf. -lexi in dī-lēgo, intel-lēgo, neg-lēgo.					
-leo (see dēleo).					
libet	libēre	libuit	libitum	<i>it pleases</i>	lib-
Also spelled lūbet.					
līceo	licēre	licui	licitum	<i>be on sale</i>	līc-
līceor	licēri		licitus	<i>bid for</i>	līc-
licet	licēre	licuit	licitum	<i>it is allowed</i>	līc-
-līcio	-licēre	-lexi, -licui	-licitum	<i>entice</i>	lāc-
lingo	lingēre		linctum	<i>lick</i>	ling-
līno	linēre	lēvi, līvi	lītum	<i>smear</i>	li-
linqvo	linqvēre	līqvi	-lictum	<i>leave</i>	līqv-
līqveo	liqvēre	licui		<i>be clear</i>	līqv-
līqvor	liqvi			<i>melt</i>	līqv-
līveo	livēre			<i>be livid</i>	līv-?
lōqvor	loqvi		locūtus	<i>speak</i>	lōqv-
lūceo	lucēre	luxi		<i>beam</i>	lūc-
lūdo	ludēre	lūsi	lūsum	<i>sport</i>	lūd-
lūgeo	lugēre	luxi		<i>mourn</i>	lūg-
luo	luēre	lui	-lūtum	<i>pay</i>	lu-
.					
Māceo	macēre			<i>be lean</i>	māc-?
maereo	maerēre			<i>grieve</i>	maer-?
mālo	malle	malui (see 225)		<i>prefer</i>	ma-vōl-
mando	mandēre	mandi	mansum	<i>chew</i>	mand-
māneo	manēre	mansi	mansum	<i>wait</i>	mān-
ē-minui also in perfect.					
mēdeor	medēri			<i>cure</i>	mēd-
mēmīni (see [235])				<i>remember</i>	mān-
mēreo	merēre	merui	meritum	<i>earn</i>	mēr-
mergo	mergēre	mersi	mersum	<i>sink</i>	merg-
mētior	metīri		mensus	<i>measure</i>	met-?
mēto	metēre	messui	messum	<i>mow</i>	mēt-

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.	STEM.
mětuo	metuĕre	metui	metūtus (once) <i>fear</i>	metu-
mīco	micāre	micui	<i>glitter</i>	mīc-

-micāvi, -micātum in compounds.

-mīniscor	-minisci		-mentus <i>call to mind</i>	mān-
mingo	mingĕre	minxi	mictum	mīg-

Pres. also mējo (for mĕg-i-o).

mīnuo	minuĕre	minui	minūtum <i>lessen</i>	mīnu-
misceo	miscĕre	miscui	mixtum, mistum <i>mix</i>	misc-
mīsĕreor	miserĕri		miserītus <i>pity</i>	mīsĕr-

misertus, rare, also rarely an active form misereo.

mīsĕret	miserĕre	miseruit	miserītum <i>it pities</i>	mīsĕr-
mitto	mittĕre	mīsi	missum <i>send</i>	mitt-
mōlo	molĕre	molui	molītum <i>grind</i>	mōl-
mōneo	monĕre	monui	monītum <i>warn</i>	mōn-
mordeo	mordĕre	mōmordi	morsum <i>bite</i>	mord-
mōrior	mori	See [216] (h)	(moritūrus) <i>die</i>	mōr-

mortuus sum is used as perfect. morīri is old.

mōveo	movĕre	mōvi	mōtum <i>move</i>	mōv-
mūceo	mucĕre		<i>be moldy</i>	mūc-?
mulceo	mulcĕre	mulsi	mulsum <i>soothe</i>	mulc-

Also per-mulctus.

mulgeo	mulgĕre	mulsi	<i>milk</i>	mulg-
-mungo	-mungĕre	-munxi	-munctum <i>wipe</i>	mung-

Nanciscor	nancisci		nactus, nactus <i>gain</i>	nāc-
nascor	nasci		nātus <i>be born</i>	na-

The full stem gna- appears in some compounds.

nĕco	necāre	{ necāvi nĕcui	{ necātum -nectum	<i>kill</i>	nĕc-
necto	nectĕre	nexi	nexum	<i>join</i>	nect-
neglĕgo (see lego).					
neo	nĕre	nĕvi	nĕtum	<i>spin</i>	ne-
nĕqveo (see qveo)				<i>can not</i>	nĕ-qvi-
nexo	nexĕre	nexui		<i>tie</i>	nex-
{ ningit ningvit	ningĕre	ninxit		<i>it snows</i>	{ ning- ningv-
nītor	niti		nixus, nīsus	<i>lean</i>	nict-

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.	STEM.
-nīveo	-nivēre	-nīvi, -nīxi	<i>wink</i>	nīgv-
nōceo	nocēre	nocui	nocitum	<i>harm</i> nōc-
nōlo	nolle	nolui	See 225	<i>be unwilling</i> nē-vōl-
nosco	noscere	nōvi	nōtum	<i>learn</i> no-

The full stem **gno-** appears in some compounds. **-gnitum** is found in **a-gnitum, co-gnitum.**

nūbo	nubēre	nupsi	nuptum	<i>marry</i>	nūb-
-nuo	-nuēre	-nui		<i>nod</i>	-nu-

ab-nuiturus once.

Oblīviscor	oblivisci		oblītus	<i>forget</i>	ob-līv-?
occūlo	occulēre	occului	occultum	<i>conceal</i>	oc-cūl-

odi (see 235).

{ -ōleo	{ -olēre	{ -olēvi	{ -olētum	<i>grow</i>	ōl-? ōle-?
{ -ōlesco	{ -olēscēre	{ -olui	{ -olītum		

ādolesco has ad-ultus.

{ ōleo	{ olēre	olui		<i>smell</i>	ōl-
{ ōlo	{ olēre				
ōportet	oportēre	oportuit		<i>it is proper</i>	ōport-
ordior	ordīri		orsus	<i>commence</i>	ord-
ōrior	orīri	See [216] (h)	ortus	<i>rise</i>	ōr-

Also orītūrus.

[ōvo] defective. See [235].

Pāciscor	pacisci	pēpīgi	pactum	<i>bargain</i>	pāc-, pāg-
paenītet	paenitēre	paenituit		<i>it repents</i>	paenīt-

paenītūrum is mentioned by grammarians.

pando	pandēre	pandi	pansum, passum	<i>open</i>	pand-
pango	pangēre	pēgi	pactum, panctum	<i>fasten</i>	pāg-
parco	parcēre	{ pēperci	parsum	<i>spare</i>	parc-
		{ parsi			
pāreo	parēre	parui	parītum	<i>appear</i>	pār-
pārio	parēre	pēpēri	partum	<i>bring forth</i>	pār-

Also parītūrus. Compounds have -perīre.

partūrio	parturīre			<i>be in labor</i>	partūri-
pasco	pascēre	pāvi	pastum	<i>feed</i>	pās-

-pescui in **compesco** and **dispesco.**

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
pătior	pati		passus	<i>be w</i>	păt-
păveo	pavēre	pāvi		<i>fear</i>	pāv-
pecto	pectēre	pexi	pexum	<i>comb</i>	pect-
pēdo	pedēre	pēpēdi			pēd-
pello	pellēre	pēpūli	pulsum	<i>drive</i>	pēl-
pendeo	pendēre	pēpendi	pensum	<i>hang</i>	pend-
pendo	pendēre	pēpendi	pensum	<i>weigh</i>	pend-
pergo	pergēre	perrexi	perrectum	<i>continue</i>	pēr-rēg-
-perio	-perīre	-perui	-pertum		pēr-

perītus as an adjective, and in operītus.

pēto	petēre	petīvi	petītum	<i>seek</i>	pēt-i-
pīget	pīgēre	piguit	pigītum	<i>it vexes</i>	pīg-
pingo	pingēre	pinxi	pictum	<i>paint</i>	pīg-
{ pinso	{ pinsēre	{ pinsui	{ pinsitum	<i>pound</i>	pīs-
{ pīso	{ pisēre	{ pinsi	{ pistum		

pīsi once, pinsībant once.

plăceo	placēre	placui	placītum	<i>please</i>	plăc-
plango	plangēre	planxi	planctum	<i>beat</i>	plang-
plaudo	plaudere	plausi	plausum	<i>clap</i>	plaud-

Most compounds weaken au to ō.

plecto	plectēre			<i>strike</i>	plect-
-plector	-plecti		-plexus	<i>twine</i>	plect-
-pleo	-plēre	-plēvi	-plētum	<i>fill</i>	ple-
plico	plicāre	{ -plicui,	{ -plicītum,	<i>fold</i>	plīc-
		{ -plicāvi	{ plicātum		
pluo	pluēre	pluit		<i>rain</i>	plu-

pluvit often in Livy.

polleo	pollēre			<i>be strong</i>	poll-?
pollūceo	pollucēre		polluctum	<i>offer</i>	pollūc-
pōno	ponēre	pōsui	posītum	<i>place</i>	pō-s-

pono is for po-sino; see sino. posīvi and posi are found, and in poetry postus.

posco	poscēre	pōposci			posc-
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Compounds retain reduplication.

possum	posse	pōtui	See 222	<i>can</i>	pōt-ēs-
pōtior	potīri	See [216] (h)	potītum	<i>be master</i>	pōti-
pōto	potāre	potāvi	pōtum, potātum	<i>drink</i>	pōta-

pōtum seems to belong to a simpler stem, po-.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
praebeo	praebēre	praebui	praebītum	<i>furnish</i>	praeb-
prandeo	prandēre	prandi	pransum	<i>dine</i>	prand-
{prehendo	prehendēre	prehendi	prehensum	<i>seize</i>	{prehend-
{prendo	prendēre	prendi	prensum		
prēmo	premēre	pressi	pressum	<i>press</i>	prēm-
prōficiscor	proficisci		profectus	<i>advance</i>	prō-fāc-
prōmo	promēre	prompsi	promptum	<i>bring out</i>	prōm-
prūrio	prurire			<i>itch</i>	prūri-?
psallo	psallēre	psalli		<i>play</i>	psall-
pūdet	pudēre	puduit	pudītum	<i>it shames</i>	pūd-
pungo	pungēre	pūpūgi	punctum	<i>prick</i>	pūg-

Compounds have -punxi.

Qvaero qvaerēre qvaesīvi qvaesītum *seek* qvaes-i-
qvaeso and **qvaesumus** are old colloquial forms. Compounds
 weaken ae to ī.

qvātio	qvatēre		qvassum	<i>shake</i>	qvāt-
Perfect -cussi in compounds.			See -cutio.		
qveo (228)	qvīre	qvīvi	qvītum	<i>can</i>	qvi-
qvēror	qveri		qvestus	<i>complain</i>	qvēs-
qviesco	qviescēre	qviēvi	qviētum	<i>rest</i>	qvie-
-qvīnisco	-qviniscēre	-qvexi		<i>defile</i>	qvīc-

Rābo	rabēre			<i>rave</i>	rāb-
rādo	radēre	rāsi	rāsum	<i>scrape</i>	rād-
rāpio	rapēre	rapui	raptum	<i>seize</i>	rāp-
rāvio		(-rausi)	(rausurus)	<i>be hoarse</i>	rāv-
rēfert	rēferre	rētūlit		<i>it concerns</i>	rē-fēr-
rēgo	regēre	rexī	rectum	<i>rule</i>	rēg-
rēnīdeo	renidēre			<i>glitter</i>	rē-nīd-
reor	rēri		rātus	<i>think</i>	ra-
rēpērio	reperire	reppēri	repertum	<i>discover</i>	rē-pār-
rēpo	repēre	repsi	reptum	<i>creep</i>	rēp-
rēsīpisco	see sāpio				rē-sāp-
rīdeo	ridēre	rīsi	rīsum	<i>laugh</i>	rīd-
ringor	ringi			<i>grin</i>	rīg-
rōdo	rodēre	rōsi	rōsum	<i>gnaw</i>	rōd-

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
rūdo	rudēre	rudīvi		<i>bray</i>	rūd-i-
rumpo	rumpēre	rūpi	ruptum	<i>break</i>	rūp-
ruo	ruēre	ruī	rūtum	<i>dash</i>	ru-
rūiturus, late.					
Saepio	saepīre	saepsi	saeptum	<i>hedge</i>	saep-
{ salio	{ (salīre ?)		{ salitum	<i>salt</i>	sal-
{ sallo	{ sallēre		{ salsum		sāl-
sālio	salīre	salui			
Also salīvi, rare.					
salve, see [235].					
sancio	sancīre	sanxi	sanctum	<i>hallow</i>	sanc-
sancītum, rare.					
sāpio	sapēre	sapīvi		<i>be wise</i>	sāp-
Also perfect re-sipui.					
sarcio	sarcīre	sarsi	sartum	<i>patch</i>	sarc-
sārio	sarīre	sarui, sarīvi	sarītum	<i>hoe</i>	sār-, sāri-?
sarpo	sarpēre		sarptum	<i>trim</i>	sarp-
sātāgo (= sāt āgo, see āgo).					
scābo	scabēre	scābi		<i>scratch</i>	scāb-
scalpo	scalpēre	scalpsi	scalptum	<i>scrape</i>	scalp-
scando	scandēre	scandi	scansum	<i>climb</i>	scand-
scāteo	scatēre			<i>bubble</i>	scāt-?
scināo	scindēre	scīdi	scissum	<i>cut</i>	scīd-
scīcīdi is old.					
scisco	sciscēre	scīvi	scītum	<i>enact</i>	sci-
scribo	scribēre	scripsi	scriptum	<i>write</i>	scrib-
sculpo	sculpēre	sculpsi	sculptum	<i>carve</i>	sculp-
sēco	secāre	secui	sectum	<i>cut</i>	sēc-
secāturus, once.					
sēdeo	sedēre	sēdi	sessum	<i>sit</i>	sēd-
sentio	sentīre	sensi	sensum	<i>think</i>	sent-
sēpēlio	sepelīre	sepelīvi	sepultum	<i>bury</i>	sepēl-
sēqvōr	seqvi		secūtus	<i>follow</i>	sēqv-
sēro	serēre	sēvi	sātum	<i>sow</i>	sa-
sēro	serēre	-serui	-sertum	<i>put in rows</i>	sēr-
serpo	serpēre	serpsi	serptum	<i>crawl</i>	serp-

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
sīdo	sidēre	sīdi		<i>settle</i>	sīd-
sēdi and sessum (borrowed from sēdeo) are also found.					
singultio	singultīre			<i>sob</i>	singulti-?
sīno	sinēre	sīvi	sītum	<i>permit</i>	si-
sisto	sistēre	stīti	stātum	<i>set</i>	sta-
Compounds keep the reduplication.					
sōleo	solēre		solītus	<i>be wont</i>	sōl-
solītus sum is used as perfect; see [216] (g).					
solvo	solvēre	solvi	solūtum	<i>loose</i>	solv-
{ sōno	{ sonāre	sonui	sonītum	<i>sound</i>	sōn-
{ sōno	{ sonēre				
sonāturus, once.					
sorbeo	sorbēre	sorbui		<i>swallow</i>	sorb-
Perfect -sorpsi, late and rare.					
spargo	spargēre	sparsi	sparsum	<i>scatter</i>	sparg-
sperno	spernēre	sprēvi	sprētum	<i>despise</i>	spēr-, spre-
-spīcio	-spicēre	-spexi	-spectum	<i>look</i>	spēc-
splendeo	splendēre			<i>shine</i>	splend-?
spondeo	spondēre	spōpondi	sponsum	<i>promise</i>	spond-
de-spōpondi, old.					
spuo	spuēre	spui	spūtum	<i>spit</i>	spu-
sqvāleo	squalēre			<i>be rough</i>	sqvāl-?
stātuo	statuēre	statui	statūtum	<i>set up</i>	stātu-
sterno	sternēre	strāvi	strātum	<i>strew</i>	stēr-,stra-
sternuo	sternuēre	sternui		<i>sneeze</i>	sternu-
sterto	stertēre	stertui		<i>snore</i>	stert-
stingvo	stingvēre	-stinxi	-stinctum	<i>extinguish</i>	stingv-
sto	stāre	stēti	stātum	<i>stand</i>	sta-
Also stāturus, rare.					
strēpo	strepēre	strepui	strepītum	<i>make a noise</i>	strēp-
{ strīdeo	{ stridēre	strīdi		<i>hiss</i>	strīd-
{ strīdo	{ stridēre				
stringo	stringēre	strinxi	strictum	<i>graze</i>	strīg-
struo	struēre	struxi	structum	<i>build</i>	strūgv-
sūgo	sugēre	suxi	suctum	<i>suck</i>	sūg-
sum see 212	esse	(fui)	(futurus)	<i>be</i>	ēs-

Complete tenses and future participle borrowed from [fuo].

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
sūmo	sumĕre	sumpsi	sumptum	<i>take</i>	sūm-
suo	suĕre	sui	sūtum	<i>sew</i>	su-
surgo	surgĕre	surrexi	surrectum	<i>rise</i>	sur-rĕg-
svādeo	svadĕre	svāsi	svāsum	<i>persuade</i>	svād-
svesco	svescĕre	svēvi	svētum	<i>get wont</i>	sve-

Tābeo	tabĕre			<i>waste</i>	tāb-?
tāceo	tacĕre	tacui	tacītum	<i>be silent</i>	tāc-
taedet			taesum	<i>it wearies</i>	taed-

tāgo (old form of tango).

tango	tangĕre	tētīgi	tactum	<i>touch</i>	tāg-
tĕgo	tegĕre	texi	tectum	<i>cover</i>	tĕg-
temno	temnĕre	tempsi	temptum	<i>despise</i>	tem-
tendo	tendĕre	tētendi	tentum, tensum	<i>stretch</i>	tend-
tĕneo	tenĕre	tenui	tentum	<i>hold</i>	tĕn-

tētīni is quoted.

terreo	terrĕre	terrui	terrītum	<i>frighten</i>	terr-
{ tergeo	{ tergĕre	tersi	tersum	<i>wipe</i>	terg-
{ tergo	{ tergĕre				
tĕro	terĕre	trīvi	trītum	<i>rub</i>	tĕr-, tri-

at-terui, once.

texo	texĕre	texui	textum	<i>weave</i>	tex-
{ tingo	{ tingĕre	tinxi	tinctum	<i>dye</i>	tingv-
{ tingvo	{ tingvĕre				
tollo	tollere	(sustūli)	(sublātum)	<i>lift</i>	tōl-, tla-

The simple tūli and lātum have the sense of fĕro, and the compound forms given are used in the sense of tollo.

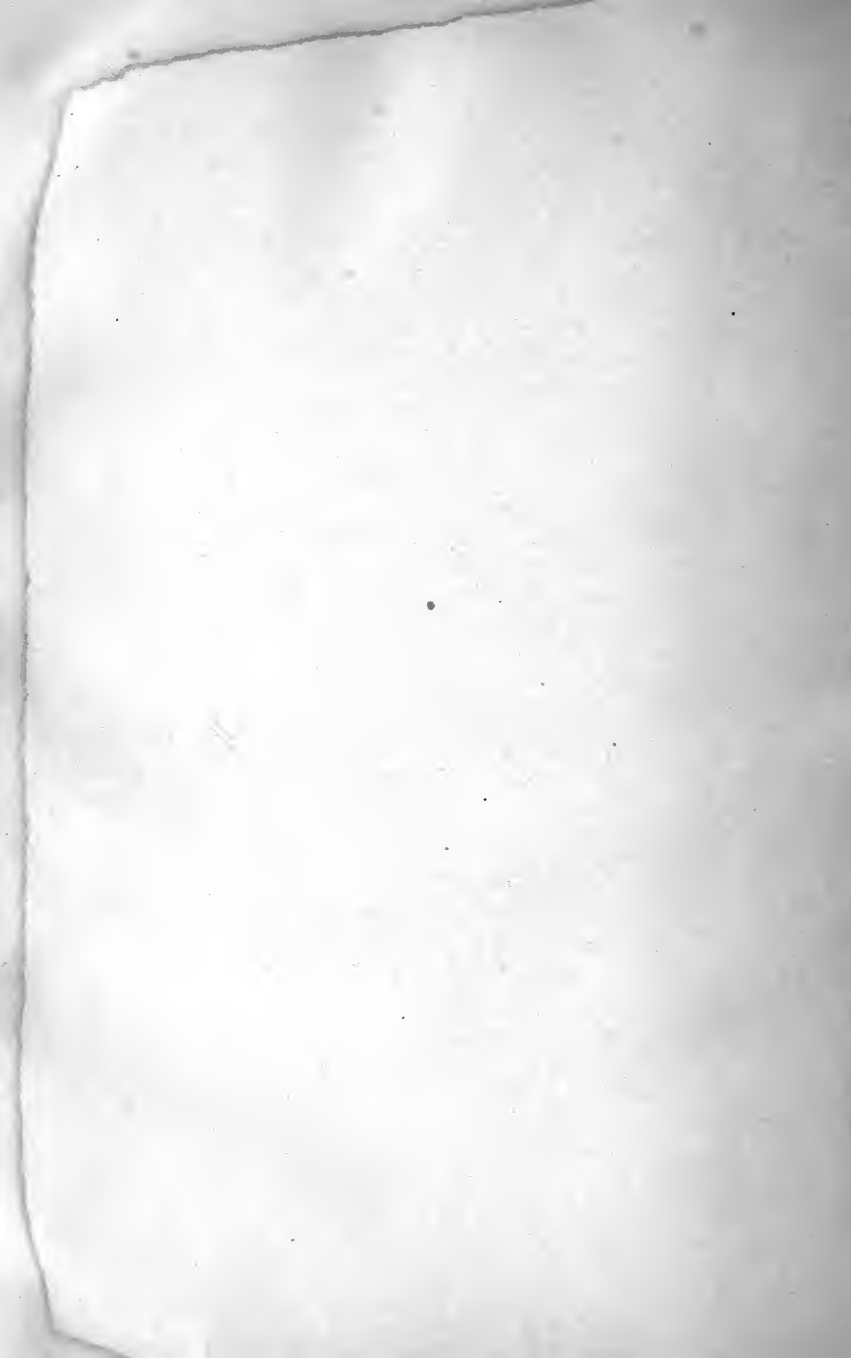
tondeo	tondĕre	tōtondi	tonsum	<i>shear</i>	tond-
tōno	tonāre	tonui	tonītum	<i>thunder</i>	tōn-

in-tonātus, once.

torqveo	torqvĕre	torsi	tortum	<i>twist</i>	torqv-
torreo	torrĕre	torrui	tostum	<i>roast</i>	tors-
traho	trahĕre	traxi	tractum	<i>drag</i>	trāh-
trĕmo	tremĕre	tremui		<i>tremble</i>	trĕm-
tribuo	tribuĕre	tribui	tribūtum	<i>assign</i>	tribu-
trūdo	trudĕre	trūsi	trūsum	<i>thrust</i>	trūd-

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.	STEM.
{ tueor tuor	{ tuēri tui		tūtus, tuītus <i>look at</i>	tu-
tundo	tundēre	tūtūdi	tūsum, tunsum <i>thump</i>	tūd-
Also perfect re-tundi.				
tūrgeo	turgēre	tursi	<i>swell</i>	turg-
Ulciscor	ulcisci		ultus <i>avenge</i>	ulc-
{ ungo ungvo	{ ungēre ungvēre	unxi	unctum <i>anoint</i>	ungv-
urgeo	urgēre	ursi	<i>urge</i>	urg-
ūro	urēre	ussi	ustum <i>burn</i>	ūs-
ūtor	uti		ūsus <i>use</i>	ūt-
Vādo	vadēre	-vāsi	-vāsum <i>go</i>	vād-
vāleo	valēre	valui	valītum <i>be strong</i>	vāl-
vēgeo	vegēre		<i>arouse</i>	vēg-?
veho	vehēre	vexi	vectum <i>carry</i>	vēh-
vello	vellēre	velli	vulsum <i>pluck</i>	vēl-
Perfect also vulsi, late.				
vendo	vendēre	vendīdi	vendītum <i>sell</i>	ven-d-
vēneo	venīre	venīvi	<i>to be sold</i>	vēn-i-
vēnio	venīre	vēni	ventum <i>come</i>	vēn-
vēreor	verēri		verītus <i>fear</i>	vēr-
vergo	vergēre		<i>incline</i>	verg-
verro	verrēre	verri	versum <i>brush</i>	verr-
verto	vertēre	verti	versum <i>turn</i>	vert-
vescor	vesci		<i>eat</i>	vesc-?
vēto	vetāre	vetui	vetītum <i>forbid</i>	vēt-
Also vetāvi, rare.				
vīdeo	vidēre	vīdi	vīsum <i>see</i>	vīd-
-vīdo, see dīvīdo.				
vīeo	viēre		viētum <i>plait</i>	vīe-
Also viētus.				

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
vincio	vincīre	vinxi	vinctum	<i>bind</i>	vinc-
vinco	vincēre	vīci	victum	<i>conquer</i>	vīc-
vīso	visēre	vīsi		<i>visit</i>	vīs-
vīvo	vivēre	vixi	victum	<i>live</i>	vīgv-
vōlo	velle	volui	see 225	<i>wish</i>	vōl-
volvo	volvēre	volvi	volūtum	<i>roll</i>	volv-
vōmo	vomēre	vomui	vomitum	<i>vomit</i>	vōm-
vōveo	vovēre	vōvi	vōtum	<i>vow</i>	vōv-



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500. INDEX OF WORDS.

[This list contains all words mentioned in the book because of any peculiarity of form or construction.]

ABBREVIATIONS.

abl.	<i>ablative.</i>	indic.	<i>indicative.</i>
acc.	<i>accusative.</i>	inflect.	<i>inflection.</i>
assim.	<i>assimilation.</i>	irreg.	<i>irregular.</i>
comp.	<i>comparison.</i>	loc.	<i>locative.</i>
constr.	<i>construction.</i>	pron.	<i>pronoun.</i>
cmpds.	<i>compounds.</i>	quant.	<i>quantity.</i>
dat.	<i>dative.</i>	redupl.	<i>reduplication.</i>
decl.	<i>declension.</i>	semi-dep.	<i>semi-deponent.</i>
def.	<i>defective.</i>	subj.	<i>subjunctive.</i>
gen.	<i>genitive.</i>	vb.	<i>verb.</i>
gend.	<i>gender.</i>	w.	<i>with.</i>

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ad	in cmpds. w. dat. [269]	ante diem	w. acc. [268]
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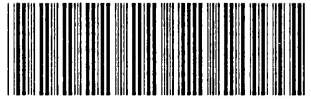
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